

# JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

A challenging journal for liberal secondary-school people

Vol. VI

DECEMBER, 1931

No. 4

## EDITORIAL

### SAFEGUARDING EDUCATIONAL MOMENTUM

The calendar year is nearing its close; but a new year is soon to dawn. Our school programs of guidance and clubs and recitations and records and building maintenance have been more or less successfully realized. The efforts that teachers and administrators have made coöperatively to realize educational progress with the school's scholastic, social, and administrative organizations have resulted in some degree of advancement towards our ideals. Nevertheless, in all schools there is probably much which as yet has not been accomplished.

To some of us the difficulties that lie ahead are disheartening. To an extent, these difficulties involve finances, equipment, overloaded schedules, and difficult administrative tasks. Much more potent in slowing up

progress, however, is the loss of the fine new enthusiasms with which the year's program started during September and October. Routine of daily tasks reënforced by inevitable occasional failures induce a weariness of well-doing, except in very buoyant natures or in determined radicals. And even radicals may become tired of trying.

During the school year, two periods of low pressure often occur. One is associated with the days of early spring, the other with the pre-Christmas holidays. If administrators and supervisors and teacher-leaders can hold themselves and their associated teachers and pupils to sustained effort during these periods the year's success is assured—if there is any positive program to succeed.

How the momentum that developed dur-

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EDWIN MILLER, *Chairman*

ing the early months of the year can be safeguarded is the keynote of the present issue of the *CLEARING HOUSE*. Exhortation may help. New suggestions and specific directions regarding the projects that show signs of lassitude will surely prove to be valuable. But the zest of adventure is too subtle to be recaptured by these means alone.

Much more effective is the introduction of immediate new projects associated with the season such that renewed enthusiasm for coöperative endeavors is almost inescapable. The capitalization of Christmas spirit presents possibilities for many such projects—gifts, parties, and services to be rendered to the shut-in, the hungry, the aged, and to all for whom we feel family or neighborly affection. Without preaching about the implications of them, such acts of kindness and helpfulness induce a glowing spirit that tends to expand the *neighbor* concept until it includes all who are journeying to Jericho.

Then there are activities related to the vacation days ahead. Last year's graduates and those of the preceding classes will be back from college. Teachers and pupils will be glad to see them again. They may drop in singly or in couples, sporting their college clothes and sophistications; they may stimulate more "frat" consciousness; they may interfere more or less seriously with school regimen. The forehanded faculty will prefer a constructive policy, a supper dance, an assembly in the graduates' honor, a basketball game between alumni and the school team, or some other definite occasion which will tend to focus the otherwise random attentions and activities of the visitors.

Even more positive and propulsive activities for the returning alumni may be encouraged in very homogeneous communities. Especially potent is such a program if the visitors include former school leaders who remember the happiness of the high-school days of responsible class membership in contrast with their present humble and sub-

missive behavior as college freshmen. The alumni may be encouraged to prepare an assembly of their own, to take active parts in the educational guidance program, to set up laboratory experiments, to participate in the club activities of their former school groups. They may, indeed, take a share in the responsibilities for the school's social-service program.

The school has a peculiarly difficult but therefore significant opportunity to encourage pupils and alumni to spend their vacation periods with some restraint, with due regard for their health, and with reasonable consideration for their parents. Country club dances, theater parties, night automobile rides, bridge parties have become a vogue among many high-school alumni sets during the Christmas holidays. These might be quite harmless if not carried to excess, but excess itself has become a vogue.

There are opportunities for the school to promote or at least to encourage more desirable forms of leisure. Hiking, winter sports, nature study, sunsets, home decoration, and reading of worth-while books are among the uses of vacation leisure which are likely to receive too little attention from boys and girls in a machine age. Concrete suggestions and, if possible, arrangements for special opportunities for fulfilment will prove helpful.

Community institutions and groups will be glad to coöperate in such a program. The public library, the Scouts and the Young Men's Christian Association, nature study clubs, reading circles, art or dramatic societies, and parent-teacher organizations are generally ready and eager to coördinate the efforts of youth in their fields with the school's program, if it is understood by them.

Thereby the school may best safeguard such momentum as it has developed during the fall term.

P.W.L.C.

## THE COMMITTEE ON CORRELATION OF STUDIES

LEE BYRNE

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Following Professor Briggs's article on the Committee of Ten which appeared in the November issue of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE, Professor Lee Byrne, visiting professor in the School of Education, New York University, presents the second of a series of reports of committees and commissions dealing with the secondary-school curriculum. Professor Byrne's article deals with the work of the Committee on Correlation of Studies.*

A. D. W.

On February 23, 1893, the Department of Superintendence appointed a Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education with Superintendent William H. Maxwell of Brooklyn as chairman. Twelve of the members were city superintendents, one had previously been a city superintendent, one was then, and another had previously been a State superintendent. The Middle West as well as the East was well represented, and there was one southern member. One thousand dollars was set apart by the National Education Association to defray expenses. The committee as a whole was later divided into three subcommittees: one on the training of teachers, one on the correlation of studies in elementary education, and one on the organization of city school systems. William T. Harris became chairman of the subcommittee on correlation of studies. This subcommittee, while concerned primarily with elementary education, was able to deal with this level only by orienting it in a broader view of education in general, which embraced the consideration of essential standpoints in secondary and even in higher education. It adopted a list of seventeen questions to be submitted "to all persons throughout the country whose opinions might be considered of value" (pages 10-12). The different subcommittees held some separate meetings, but for the most part the subject matter of each report was discussed by the full committee. Chairman Harris was requested, in drawing up his final report, "to give expression to the views of the majority of the committee as gathered from these discussions, to discuss educational

values, to elucidate various phases of correlation, and to arrange a tabular view of the elementary course of study." On February 18, 1895, the report of the subcommittee on correlation of studies, as well as those of the other subcommittees, was adopted. The combined papers were published in March 1895. The contributions of the other two subcommittees are rather brief, so that the published Report of the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education<sup>1</sup> consists mainly of Harris' report for the subcommittee on correlation of studies.

From information as to the procedure of the committee and from the internal evidence of the document we may infer that the actual composition of the report on correlation of studies was the work of Commissioner Harris. Students of education are aware that he is regarded by many as having made the St. Louis schools the best city system in this country during the period of his superintendency, and that his administration of the office of United States Commissioner of Education was distinguished. It is not so generally known that he played a large part in initiating into the United States the idealistic philosophy, which, as further developed by Josiah Royce and others, became the prevailing philosophy in this country in the latter part of the nineteenth century, at a time when a parallel trend towards idealism also prevailed in Great Britain. Moreover he was one of the educational "progressives" of his time,

<sup>1</sup> Report of the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education. National Education Association (New York: American Book Company, 1895).



though hardly a radical, and incorporated into his outlook much material from currently accepted doctrines of Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel.

Harris's report embodied a consistent and fairly complete philosophy of education with numerous specific applications suited to the American school situation of the time. It makes rather explicit its own presuppositions to an extent rarely met before (or since) in American educational literature. While it does not begin by listing its postulates, a reader of the document meets with statements which make it clear that such propositions as the following are included in its general or in its educational philosophy.

1. The universe is purposive.
2. The source of the purpose is God.
3. God is outside the universe.
4. The ruling purpose promotes conditions for an optimum development of individuality.
5. Development of individuality involves increase in harmony with larger wholes.
6. Advance of a whole to optimum development is dependent on optimum development of individualities within the whole.
7. Man is the highest type of individuality.
8. The proximate whole to which man belongs is a social group.
9. This social group is a political state.
10. It is also a nationality.
11. Man-collective, or the state, in turn has an individuality.
12. There is a larger whole of humanity embracing the different nationalities or states.
13. But individual man functions primarily in and through his own state or nationality.
14. The still larger whole is the universe.
15. Collective man is steadily increasing his influence in or control over the extrahuman forces of the universe.
16. Thus the universe is itself advancing in development through steady enhancement of the highest type of individuality which it contains.
17. Individuality has different aspects:
  - a) The intellectual, utilizing ideas, with the true as goal.
  - b) Ideas lead to action as their expression, involving will, and having the good as goal.
  - c) Sensation and feeling, in which ideas may also play a part, having the beautiful as goal.
18. Collective man, or the state, embodies ideas.
19. The divine purpose is expressed, not only in the universe, but particularly in history.
20. The character of history is that of a steady development towards conditions most favorable to fullest growth of individuality (democracy).
21. This progress occurs through the conflict of the ideas that are embodied in states (wars, if necessary).
22. That idea which most favors growth of individuality prevails (in war or otherwise) over less favorable ideas.
23. However, each conflict in ideas results in a resolution of the conflict in a new synthesis, which retains what is most valuable in the previously conflicting ideas and marks new advance.
24. History, having to do with the *modus operandi* and progress of states, furnishes education or orientation for the future citizen of a state.
25. As history orients the future citizen of the state, natural science furnishes a partial orientation for the citizen in the setting of the physical universe, by giving him intellectual insight into the *modus operandi* of the latter.
26. A proximate view of the physical universe reveals it as operated according to unvarying laws of cause and effect.
27. A great educational danger is that the individual may suffer arrested development at this point and conceive cause and effect as applying to all things (naturalism).
28. In fact, they apply directly only in the physical realm, whereas personality, both individual and collective, operates on a different principle, that of purpose and means, as does the person God also.
29. Cause and effect then are a framework always occurring in a larger and higher framework of purpose and means, and strictly subordinate to it; certain steps of mediation take the form of cause and effect in a larger scheme that is purposive; lifeless things respond to "foreign" compulsion, coming from without; personality is self-determinative and self-active.
30. Not only is the universe ultimately teleological and the history of man-collective as well, but the individual himself must be so conceived; he "unfolds" towards a foredestined end which he will reach automatically unless obstacles stand in his way to prevent him; from the



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individual standpoint it is the task of education to remove all obstacles to the unfolding and expansion of the latent capacity in the individual.

31. An implication of this for method is that one should begin where the child is, with the near at hand, and work out "concentrically" to that which is more remote, systematizing as one goes along, rather than begin with the completely organized system.
32. However, for true freedom, rather than anarchy, discipline is necessary; the child who is not given the advantage of discipline is denied the opportunity of availing himself of valuable habits that the race has already won from time.
33. Geography shares some of the qualities of natural science and history; it studies the cause and effect conditions in man's physical environment on earth, but gives chief attention to the ways in which man, individual and collective, takes control of this natural setting and utilizes it for the promotion of his own purposes.
34. Mathematics is man's first intellectual tool in achieving control over nature, by counting and measuring things and forces with an ultimate view to their control in advancing his own ends; it makes possible the other sciences of nature.
35. Mathematics may produce arrested development if it engrosses an undue amount of attention, because it is solely quantitative and leaves out all that is qualitative and even all that is causal.
36. All man's achievements are won by collective methods and, for these to be possible, communication and record of ideas are necessary; hence in this we find the primary significance of language.
37. Literary works of art portray situations of the soul or of life and lead the pupil out of and beyond himself as spiritual guides, enabling him better to understand both himself and his fellow men, and to share with them the spiritual wealth of the race.
38. The medium of literary works is beautiful, and they furnish the chief aesthetic training of the school.

The subcommittee took for the title of its topic the word "correlation," due presumably to the influence of Herbartian interests at that time. Harris discusses four meanings

to be attached to correlation. The leading one, which gives the main emphasis to the report, is a meaning that we should now express in different words but which, more fully developed, continues to dominate educational thought. It involves a shift to the social and away from the mere psychologizing of education which, Harris intimates, had long been "favored by educational writers." The psychological interest is retained, especially as applicable to method, but strictly subordinated to the "what" of education, which must be based on "correlation" of the pupil's course of study with the world in which he lives. "The chief consideration, to which all others are to be subordinated, is this requirement of the civilization into which the child is born."

While we must thus credit Harris with pioneering in the direction of the social emphasis, we are likely to be struck with the limitations of his views as regards means. Aside from literature, with its contribution to "human nature," reliance for civic education is placed almost alone on history and geography. The history is political. The elementary school is to use American history to 1789! All American history within a hundred years of the date of writing is excluded, because it has not yet assumed "classic" proportions and so is not suitable for school use. The story culminates dramatically with the formation of the constitution. Then there is to be "study of the outline of the Constitution for ten or fifteen weeks in the final year of the elementary school." It may be said that the ideal of human geography (to be exact, 25 per cent geographical, 50 per cent "human," and 25 per cent scientific) is one that would hardly require revision now. The main theme here is economic. High-school history is to be "world history." Here we meet a conflict of ideals between the psychological principle of "concentric" development outward from American history, via foreign relations, and the

attractions of orderly narrative from the beginnings, but the preference is apparently for the latter, for the sake of the great drama of world history purposively and steadily advancing in the direction of conditions more and more favorable to the flowering of individuality in democracy and a system of private property.

A second meaning attached to the word "correlation" and endorsed by the committee is that of adjustment of the branches of study in such a manner that the whole course at any given time represents all the great divisions of human learning. This idea has subsequently received emphasis in junior-high-school theory and as the principle of "distribution" in high-school and collegiate curricula; it is exemplified in collegiate orientation courses.

A third meaning is "that no one faculty is so overcultivated or so neglected as to produce abnormal or one-sided mental development." We now speak of this as "educating the whole child."

The fourth meaning is the principle of psychological rather than logical order, which goes back to Pestalozzi, and which has already been noted in the idea of spreading out "concentrically" (the Herbartian term) from the point where the child is.

No one of the four meanings here attached to correlation is the usual one of the interconnecting of different subjects during the progress of instruction in a particular class. This meaning, the committee intimates, is an illegitimate application of the idea, and it is discussed under the title of "synthesis of studies." The proposal was not sympathetic to Harris because it violated his Hegelian notion of the growth of the whole as dependent on enhanced individuation in the parts. If subject boundaries are wiped out full individuation is never reached.

About eleven pages are devoted to a discussion of the distinctions between elemen-

tary, secondary, and higher education (pages 73-84). In the first years, a pupil acquires the results of a civilization rather as an outfit of habits, usages, and traditions, than as a scientific discovery. Higher education has as its province the correlation of the several branches of human learning in the unity of the spiritual view furnished by religion to our civilization. It sees each branch, art, or discipline, in the light of all the others. This higher or comparative view is essential to completeness and prevents the one-sidedness of hobbies or fads. It cannot well be introduced until the student has already completed his elementary course of study, dealing with the immediate aspects of the world, and his secondary course, dealing with the separate formal and dynamic aspects that lie next in order behind the facts of first observation.

It is of interest to observe what ideas were advanced by the committee that may have served as steps in the direction of the future junior high school. The Committee of Ten had advocated introduction of certain secondary subjects at an earlier date and had been somewhat favorable towards the idea of a six-year high school. The subcommittee on correlation of studies considered the proposal of a six-six system but opposed it. However, they favored introduction into elementary grades of some subject matter usually regarded as secondary. Harris felt that elementary arithmetic was greatly overdone and productive of "arrested development." The subcommittee recommended a modified algebra for the seventh and eighth grades. Similarly, it was felt that it would be a gain for elementary English if in the eighth year a foreign language, preferably Latin, were to be substituted for English grammar. That the prospective high-school student would take algebra and Latin as a freshman does not seem to have been questioned. One hour a week was to be devoted to oral instruction in natural

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science throughout the elementary grades and one hour a week to oral instruction in world history in the seventh and eighth years. Manual training in wood and iron (sewing and cooking for girls) were to have one-half day each week for one-half year each in grades seven and eight. P. H. Hanus and five other New England men, who were not members of the committee, contributed the idea that the subjects in the later elementary period should be regarded as "instruments through which the pupil is to be discovered." It is only on the basis of such discovery that the pupil's development "can be intelligently stimulated and guided." Space cannot be taken to present forward-looking recommendations regarding promotion and teacher specialization.

We do not find a consciousness of the destiny of the high school as a future scene of mass education, but the fundamental problem involved in this situation is encountered and interestingly discussed in connection with the difficulties and differential effects of geometry instruction (page 75).

Harris is reputed to be one of those who helped to eradicate the faculty psychology from educational thinking, but there are distinct echoes of it in this document. The doctrine of formal discipline is assumed throughout.

It is generally held that the report of the subcommittee on correlation of studies of the Committee of Fifteen failed to exert a degree of influence comparable to that exercised by the report of the Committee of Ten.<sup>2</sup> It did not propose so much in the way

of specific change but, in large part, reflected practices already existing in more progressive school systems, such as that of St. Louis. That such practices, so far as good, became more widespread is usually not credited to the committee. More than anything else, the report is a statement of a general philosophy, not lacking in profundity, breadth, clear thinking, and contact with actual schools, children, and teachers. The general philosophy was destined soon to become that of a minority in the English-speaking world and to disappear almost entirely from American educational literature. The leading educational ideas in many instances were carried along without attracting attention in the powerful streams of new movements, which in their entirety were quite radically different in character; when so carried along they were simply identified with the new or regarded as matters of common acceptance. Some of the committee's ideas have since been dropped out and left in a limbo of disregard; others have been modified, corrected, or enlarged; others have been rejected. The Hegelian notion of history and progress as inevitable are now rejected, as they are known to be untrue. All serious attempt at a cosmic view has been dropped out. Froebelian "unfolding" is replaced by Dewey's more adequate idea of growth. The concept of the social is now enlarged so that it is no longer exclusively or even chiefly political. Emphasis on the individuality of the pupil has gone much farther and carried with it a modification of our views regarding discipline. Faith in the intellectual has receded and has been accompanied by recession of faith in academic values. These changes in our attitudes I can only indicate without discussion.

<sup>2</sup> See Professor T. H. Briggs's interpretation of the report of the Committee of Ten in November 1931, *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*.



## KRIS KRINGLE DAY: A PROJECT IN HUMANITIES

R. J. BRETNALL

*EDITOR'S NOTE: R. J. Brettnall is principal of the high school at Millburn, New Jersey. He has for some years been following the practice of giving the pupils a very large degree of responsibility for a series of activities preceding the Christmas holidays. His article describes these activities and some of the very interesting outcomes in so far as they affect the lives of the pupils and of others in the community.*

A. D. W.

"No pies are so sweet as those I make myself." The smile-wrinkled old lady for whom I once ran errands spoke less of her art of cookery than she did of the general philosophy of humanity. We like the things which we do ourselves. We like them better when we do them for our friends.

Out of this philosophy has grown a Christmas festival at the Millburn High School called Kris Kringle Day. It has evolved from student desire and suggestion assisted and wisely guided by sympathetic teachers. The day has for its aim the greatest enjoyment for every student and a spirit that reaches out to the unfortunate. The mechanics of the day are in charge of the junior class of the high school, who sponsor the project. In the arrangement of the day every student has an opportunity for some part in the construction of the plan, yet no one does anything for himself alone.

The festival occurs on the day before closing for the Christmas recess. About six weeks before this time, the chairman of the day sends out his word to the various classes and homerooms. Two weeks before the closing for the Christmas holidays the school begins to take on the colors of the season. Thirty young people who are just beginning to feel the rising tide of the spirit of old Saint Nick can furnish a marvelous mass of ideas for decoration. Most of them go into effect—Christmas trees and their trimmings, artificial snow, wreathes, holly, mistletoe. Instructors just forget that blackboards are necessary for such commonplace use as Latin conjugations or algebra problems, for each room has chosen to use this space for some scene appropriate to the day, an old

English, Dutch, or kiddy scene, or almost anything that the vivid imagination of vigorous high-school students may suggest. It is interesting to note how the students will work for an objective which is so obvious. Once I noted a big husky halfback staying until six o'clock for a week drawing dolls and toys and balls because his homeroom had so decreed and he had been given the honor of furnishing the decorations.

The chairman of the day awards to various groups the work of preparing the gymnasiums, the library, and the cafeteria for the occasion. One group is assigned the job of dressing the principal's offices. Here comes the fun. On some afternoon the week before Christmas the students come to the office and "fire the principal," while some student takes his place for the rest of the day. He leaves in humility but when he returns the next morning his domain bears all the glories of the season.

The day arrives, the Friday before we close for the Christmas recess. The festivities begin at nine o'clock with the homeroom parties—any type of party that the students may desire. Jokes are exchanged; games played; every form of amusement that can get within the classroom walls seems to come forward. Enter the building at this time and you will need no one to convince you that this is the noisiest spot on "God's footstool"—and the happiest.

From the wildness of the homeroom celebration, the students pass directly to the auditorium to all the solemnities and dignity of a Christmas service. The chairman of the day presides. Some student has been given

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the privilege of reading the story of the nativity, an honor which is much sought and highly appreciated. The students sing the carols, led by one of their own number. Some layman, selected by the students as an invited guest, gives a short talk appropriate to the day. There are greetings from the superintendent and the principal.

There now comes a short recess. Students move about the building or mingle with parents and visitors who have come in for the occasion.

The school then reassembles for the Christmas play. The play rendered is the winning contribution in a Christmas play contest which extends through all the English classes. Under the guidance of the English instructors any student may choose to write such a play as part of his English work. Gold prizes are given to the winner and to the two runners up, but of course the presentation of the play and the introduction of the author to the audience are the highest honors. The teacher of dramatics who coaches the play is the only instructor who has any official hand in the day.

The play takes us to the lunch hour. Some go home; some to the cafeteria. Some meet in special groups in their homerooms, for this is a free day.

At one o'clock we are ready for the afternoon. There are mass games in one gymnasium, a card party in the cafeteria, and a dance orchestra in the other gymnasium. All

rolls merrily on until every one has had enough or until the orchestra will stay no longer, when the students call "Merry Christmas" and return to take down the decorations and bring together the gifts of the homerooms.

And here the "Project in Humanities" grows. Either in decorating the homeroom or removing the decorations, every student has had some opportunity to work for some one else, but this is only the beginning, for out of this comes now the opportunity to help the unfortunate. The Christmas trees, the toys that were given as jokes, and the money and provisions that have been brought in to special committees are all sent to the Neighborhood House, as we call the settlement house in our community. All these go into poor homes to make some lives happier and brighter.

We are not finished. All the decorations of the dance have been left, and Saturday afternoon, under the sponsorship of the Hi Y and Hi Tri groups, comes the Kiddy Party. The names and addresses of fifty poor kiddies, youngsters who cannot have a full measure of joy at home, are given us by the Neighborhood House. The high-school students with cars call for these children and take them to the gymnasium for a three-hour party, packed with all the merriment, ice cream, and cookies that youngsters can hold. Then they drive them safely home, and here ends our "Project in Humanities," our voluntary service to the unfortunate.

## VISITING THE OLD SCHOOL

OTIS W. CALDWELL

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Otis W. Caldwell, former director of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, offers a suggestive picture of the kind of relations that might be maintained between graduates and the school from which they graduate and indicates some of the factors that contribute to the maintenance of this relation.*

A. D. W.

Yesterday, I had an office visit with a college freshman who began his first-grade school work under my supervision. He has been a satisfactory pupil through all the years, and has been in enough "mix-ups" to group him with the majority. He has not been too fearsome to keep out of trouble, nor too good to rise above the danger line. Hence, when I asked him why school graduates return to the old school, I felt that I might secure "an average" answer. He sat quietly for a brief time following my question, an act which pleased and encouraged me.

"Why do they come back," he repeated, "Well, I never just tried to answer that question. They surely do come back; that is, some of them do, and some don't. It's funny, now that I think of it, that some don't seem to want to come back at all. But here I am for the third time this year already, and I've come to your office each time though you've not been in charge of the school for three years or more. I guess I know why I come. First, because I was sort o' lonesome in college and hustled over here almost as soon as I came home to visit my folks. Then, the next time I wanted to ask you about the 'frat' that bid me, and now I'm in town for the big football game and just came over, well just to visit, I guess."

Some days earlier I asked another former pupil the same question. He was graduated from high school six years ago, has completed his bachelor's work in college, and is now in a graduate school of business. Like the college freshman referred to, this older student began by saying that many high-school graduates do not care much about returning to their old school. "Why do you

come back?" I asked. "It's a kind of home to me," he said. "The teachers I knew best are not in the school now, and the friends I had among the pupils are scattered everywhere. Even the building is different, but just same I like to come back. It seems to start me off again on whatever I am doing."

Possibly by questioning a large group of returning graduates one might learn much about the reasons for school loyalties or their opposites. I doubt if much could be learned from inspection of the fervid appeals from the alumni secretaries whose business it is to get the alumni out for a rousing meeting in behalf of "the dear old school." It has always seemed to me that if during the student's years in school the school has not built the foundational relationships of a permanent nature, any subsequent appeals to return and stand by the dear old Alma Mater make a rather hollow sound. Certainly those older ones of us who have been students successively, even if not always successfully, in several institutions sometimes become wearied by constant appeals to be loyal to all these institutions and to show this loyalty by generous subscriptions. In some of these institutions our loyalty was not thought needful of cultivation until it was falsely suspected that our worldly successes might make possible an increase in our subscriptions.

In the first years following graduation from high school, most of the graduates return from time to time as occasion permits. The number of these who return diminishes as the years pass until, after ten years or so, the visits and "reunions" include recent graduates chiefly. This isn't surprising, since the successful graduates have developed new



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and compelling alliances which make their own immediate demands. The less successful graduates, in the main, drift away and oftentimes lose interest as well as occasion for returning to the old school. But, notwithstanding those facts, there do occur frequent individual visits from older graduates, and the causes for their return are of interest.

Friendships bring many graduates back. With recent graduates, this friendship is conspicuously between the students themselves, but wholesomely mixed with friendship for a few specially liked teachers. I have in mind two teachers, especially, to whom returning recent graduates always run with the enthusiastic welcome of devoted childish friendship.

The mutual values of such meetings could scarcely be questioned, and probably such admired teachers truly live with these graduates in much that engages them when they are away from the school. The renewal of such friendships and of the associated idealism are of great importance and should be fostered. Then, there are scholastic friendships, evidenced by the important but less frequent graduate who calls on scholarly teachers, and sits quietly discussing the world of ideas into which the graduate has gone. He trusts the teacher's scholarship, and more than that he trusts his desire to use informed and balanced judgment when considering the always changing ideas of the calling into which the graduates have gone. Such visits as these occur throughout the year, and while devoid of the external aspects of "reunion and loyalty" are indeed the best evidence of a high quality of loyalty.

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Still other graduates return when in duress, knowing that in the school there are teachers whose interest never dies and to whom one may present his problem with advance assurance of a sympathetic hearing even though the final word may have to be one of adverse criticism and assignment of a hard way of making one's adjustments. And, some graduates, appreciating the teacher's qualities suggested above, hasten to the school when scholastic, artistic, or personal achievements have been made, feeling that the favorite teacher will share in their justified elation, without accusing them of undue exaltation.

The high school should be and often is the pupil's intellectual home in a large measure. For many it is also his social home. Its library, its teachers, its ideals, even its walls and physical equipment, minister to the pupils at a most impressible period. It is indeed a poor school that fails to impress its "ideal and its spirit" upon pupils in such ways that most fail to return for years following their graduation. Graduates are the exponents of the schools from which they come. If they do not visit, the school should look itself over with care.

## AN EMPIRICAL BASIS FOR SCIENTIFIC STANDARDS IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES

C. C. CERTAIN

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. C. C. Certain is editor of The Elementary English Review. His knowledge of the high-school library field is based on an intensive study of library needs over a period of years. The editors feel that the article which follows contains information and suggestions from which school librarians will derive great benefit. This is the first of a series of articles on the library and its uses, edited by Mr. Certain.*

A. D. W.

The real power for educational good in the secondary-school library has, it seems to me, not yet been fully appreciated. This room, attractively appointed, comfortably furnished, and stocked with alluring books, is full of possibilities. Here the bright pupil finds endless satisfaction in books, and here, too, the wayward boy or girl comes under the influence of reading more surely than through devices of classroom instruction. For here it is that the silent ways of the printed page may capture even the capricious or desultory mind. Hence the high-school library is to be thought of not only as an instrument or agency of classroom instruction, although it is that preëminently, but as an educational force in itself.

The high school of the future needs to do less teaching of books and more teaching with books. The classroom at present is too much of a hazard to free reading in the library. For all of our talk about the discontinuance of the one-book course, this impoverished method of teaching survives too largely in common practices of classroom instruction. The trend of life outside of school will not permit this state of affairs to extend far into the future. The day will come when it will be impossible for a teacher to conduct a recitation in English or history or chemistry or civics without the direct use of the library in every phase of the instruction. Library reading will be continuous, and the success of a course of study will depend upon the unity existing between activities in the classroom and laboratory and reading in the library. The library will be the source and inspiration of learning; the

classroom or laboratory will be the place of creative activity, demonstration, or expression. The use of a single textbook as the basis of a course will be universally decried.

Such a vital relationship between the library and all departments in the school will result, conversely, in the enrichment of the high-school library beyond what may readily be imagined today. The continuous needs that must be met by the library will be accompanied by insistent demands for improved service and equipment. Changes in the library will so immediately affect the well-being and success of the school at large that every precaution will be taken to give it the proper set-up and administration.

Let us now consider, in some detail, particular features of library organization and administration upon whose adequate development the secondary-school library of the future will depend.

Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes<sup>1</sup> accomplished as much as it did in high-school library development for the reason that it brought order out of chaos. Up to that time, the statement that a high

<sup>1</sup> Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes. Report of the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and of the National Education Association, C. C. Certain, chairman, 1918.

Adopted by the above named organizations and approved by the Committee on Education of the American Library Association. The report was published by the North Central Association, the National Education Association, the American Library Association, the New England Association of School Librarians, the State of New York, Wayne County, Michigan, Public Schools of Detroit, Michigan, State of Texas, and other State organizations and city school systems.

## SCIENTIFIC STANDARDS IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES

school possessed a library meant anything that the claimant might desire. In 1915, with the aid of the National Bureau of Education, I investigated 1,400 high schools in 18 different Southern States, and found that a collection of books without a librarian might mean a library; a collection of books without a place to put them (in some cases the books were locked in closets beneath stairways) might also be called a library; or a librarian, or teacher-librarian, without any materials except those which she herself supplied, might constitute the definition.

After making a tabulation and study of the data secured through this investigation, I defined the high-school library to include such features as (1) appropriate housing and equipment, (2) professionally trained librarian, (3) scientific selection and care of books and other materials, (4) instruction in the use of books and libraries, (5) adequate annual appropriations for salaries and for the maintenance of the library, and (6) a trained librarian as State supervisor.

It was because of the definiteness of these six items that the North Central Association, in 1918, accepted them as the basis for library standards in accrediting the high schools of its territory.

At the time of the publication of the Standards, in 1918, a period of five years was set for their attainment in the majority of public high schools in the North Central territory, but more than a decade has passed and most of the high schools in the country are still far below the standards set. Until recently, therefore, I have not seen a real need for anything other than the old Standards. In fact, there was no demand for anything else. Lately, however, the question of new standards has arisen. In the first place, the 1918 Standards are out of print. Then there is need, at present, for careful attention to library problems, partly because in this period of depression, there is a tendency to neglect the library. On the other hand,

the progress made in school planning during the past ten or fifteen years ensures attention to any available standards of library construction and maintenance that are authoritative and scientific. There is a renewed desire to do things effectively and economically.

It has seemed to me that the next step towards a more satisfactory development of the high-school library of the future should be in the same direction as the original one—that of giving greater definiteness to the high-school-library concept. To be more concrete, as well as more scientific, in establishing this concept of the high-school library of the future, we must think of the high-school library as consisting of so many fundamental elements. Accordingly, I am now endeavoring to write new Standards from this viewpoint.

In 1919, I made an initial attempt definitely to establish such fundamental elements when I drew up a list of eighteen items which might bear significant relation to the successful organization, equipment, and administration of a high-school library. To the original six items which were the major features of the Standards of 1918 were added others of less or equal importance, such as the use of the library reading room and the use of library books for home reading. This list, deliberately unorganized and without plan for subsequent organization, was submitted to twenty-nine judges for scoring on the basis of suitability for scale construction. The group of scorers included librarians, research experts, teachers of English, those engaged in teacher training, and school administrators. They were carefully selected for their high professional standing, and active interest in public-school education.

This study, although made in 1919, is of peculiar interest today because the development of school libraries has been so slow that the information obtained through the



investigation is still timely. A careful study of the results showed a consensus placing certain items high for their significance in the successful organization, administration, and equipment of a high-school library.

The eighteen items were listed, as on the accompanying illustration, pages 209-210, for evaluation by a carefully selected group of judges. As has been pointed out, the items were selected very largely from the document, Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes. This document was well known to the judges, for it had had wide distribution through the organizations that published it.

The twenty-nine judges were chosen from widely different groups of educators, for it was planned that the projected score card should be serviceable to all groups represented.

The following list gives the names of the judges in the several different groups to which they belonged *at that time*.

#### Group I—Librarians

- Ellen Hoffman, Library, Ypsilanti Normal School, Ypsilanti, Michigan
- Clara Howard, Library, Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
- Florence Hopkins, Library, Central High School, Detroit, Michigan
- Willis H. Kerr, Library, Emporia Normal School, Emporia, Kansas
- Elizabeth Knapp, Children's Department, Detroit Public Library, Detroit, Michigan
- Hannah Lagosa, Library, University High School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
- Ella S. Morgan, Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California
- Martha Pritchard, Library, Detroit Teachers College, Detroit, Michigan
- Frank K. Walter, Library, General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Michigan
- Grace Winton, Library, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Michigan

#### Group II. Research Experts

- H. W. Anderson, Buildings and Supplies, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan
- N. L. Englehardt, School Administration,

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

D. T. Kelley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

C. D. Kingsley, Chairman of Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Department of Superintendence, N.E.A., State Department of Education, Boston, Massachusetts

M. R. Trabue, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

#### Group III. Teacher-Training Specialists

C. C. Certain, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Michigan

J. F. Hoscic, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

S. A. Leonard, Lincoln High School, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

#### Group IV. Teachers of English

Mary Sullivan, Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Natalie Thornton, Graduate Student, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

#### Group V. School Administrators

Burton A. Barnes, Department of Geography, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan

Jesse B. Davis, Principal, Central High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan

T. W. Gosling, State High-School Inspector, Madison, Wisconsin

H. A. Hollister, State High-School Inspector, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

W. P. Hood, Principal, Gilbert School, Winstead, Connecticut

Four of the twenty-nine judges returned incomplete score sheets which could not be included in the tabulations. These judges were:

S. A. Courtis, Department of Research, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan

W. W. Hatfield, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Illinois

Earl Hudelson, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana

Paul Packer, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan

The items were evaluated from three different points of view. Each item was ranked

## SCIENTIFIC STANDARDS IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES

TABLE I  
TOTAL POINTS ASSIGNED EACH ITEM BY EACH GROUP OF SCORERS, WITH GRAND TOTALS  
FOR ALL GROUPS, AND RELATIVE POSITION FOR EACH ITEM AS BASED UPON A  
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRAND TOTALS.

ITEMS	GROUPS OF SCORERS					GRAND TOTALS	RELATIVE POSITION OF EACH OF 18 ITEMS
	GROUP I <i>Librarians</i>	GROUP II <i>Research Experts</i>	GROUP III <i>Teacher- Training Specialists</i>	GROUP IV <i>Teachers of English</i>	GROUP V <i>Adminis- trators</i>		
A	454	254	115	56	203	1082	6
B	430	198	88	63	175	954	10
C	411	205	123	51	169	959	9
D	226	177	102	46	158	709	15
E	406	200	133	81	210	1030	8
F	537	232	181	100	243	1293	1
G	257	153	80	39	165	694	16
H	380	166	114	79	182	921	11
I	480	228	110	106	165	1089	5
J	328	163	137	95	177	900	12
K	464	253	128	126	200	1171	3
L	421	222	125	88	215	1071	7
M	507	256	172	94	196	1225	2
N	467	229	135	80	230	1141	4
O	389	116	80	90	215	890	13
P	176	109	31	42	128	486	18
Q	219	97	39	70	133	558	17
R	249	168	132	62	223	834	14

from highest to lowest by the judges to show its possible value in the construction of a score card, *first* as a definite or distinct unit or item free from overlapping with other units or items scored; *second* as a basis of accuracy in scoring; and *third* as evidence, or possible source of evidence, of some degree of excellence. A specimen ballot is shown in the next column. Three ballots were sent to each judge, one for each of the above ratings.

The scores were recorded in inverted order, so that the highest numbers would consistently represent the highest positions in the evaluation. The ratings for excellence were weighted by doubling the scores.

Table I shows the total points assigned each item by each group of scorers, with excellence weighted by doubling. It gives the grand totals for all groups of scorers, and

the relative positions of all items according to an order distribution of the grand totals.

## SPECIMEN BALLOT

## SCORE CARD FOR HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES

*C. C. Certain, Cass Technical High School,  
Detroit, Michigan*

Items for Use in the Construction of the Score Card.

Based upon the report of the Committee on High School Library Standardization, of the National Education Association, and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

- A Use of the Reading Room
- B Use of the Library for Home Reading
- C Classroom Use of Teaching Materials Available in the Library
- D Use of Publicity Facilities
- E Organization of Library Materials
- F Indispensable Equipment
- G Additional Equipment for Effective Work
- H Scientific Care of Books and Other Materials

- I Expert Selection of Books and Other Materials
- J Staff Organization and Administration
- K Professional Standing of Staff
- L Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries
- M Appropriations
- N Housing
- O Status of the Library in the High-School Organization
- P Relationship to Other School Libraries in the System
- Q Coöperation with Other Library Agencies
- R Statistical Records

Evaluation on the basis of general excellence.

It is desired to make use of the above items in the preparation of a score card for the measurement of high-school libraries of various types.

There are 18 items listed. Kindly number those items in order from 1 to 18, placing first those items which you consider of greatest importance, in rating a high-school library on the basis of *general excellence*, and placing last those items considered to be of least importance in rating on the basis of general excellence.

Evaluated by \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

In Table II, the items are listed to show their relative importance. A glance at this table shows that the arrangement of the items lacks effective organization. Several

items are at the bottom of the list because they overlap others, or because they could not, without further definition, be scored accurately. However, this kind of thing was inevitable because the original selection and presentation of the items was without design, as has already been pointed out. Nevertheless, a very definite placement of certain items is shown, as witness in the first ten positions, (1) indispensable equipment, (2) appropriations, (3) professional standing of staff, (4) housing, (5) expert selection of books, (6) use of the reading room, (7) instruction in the use of books and libraries, (8) organization of library materials, (9) classroom use of teaching materials, and (10) use of the library for home reading.

Quite evidently, (6) and (10) are identical with use and should be counted as one, admitting the item, scientific care of books and other materials (11), within the first ten positions.

It seems worth while to observe here that the study resulted in a great deal of other information that was quite revealing. For

TABLE II  
RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF EACH ITEM ACCORDING TO ITS SUITABILITY  
FOR SCORE-CARD CONSTRUCTION

ITEM	ORIGINAL POSITION	TOTAL POINTS	RELATIVE IMPORTANCE
Indispensable equipment .....	F	1293	1
Appropriations .....	M	1225	2
Professional standing of staff .....	K	1171	3
Housing .....	N	1141	4
Expert selection of books and other materials	I	1089	5
Use of reading room .....	A	1082	6
Instruction in the use of books and libraries .	L	1071	7
Organization of library materials .....	E	1030	8
Classroom use of teaching materials .....	C	959	9
Use of the library for home reading .....	B	954	10
Scientific care of books and other materials .	H	921	11
Staff organization and administration .....	J	900	12
Status of library in high-school organization .	O	890	13
Statistical records .....	R	834	14
Use of publicity facilities .....	D	709	15
Additional equipment .....	G	694	16
Coöperation with other library agencies .....	Q	558	17
Relationship to other school libraries .....	P	486	18



## SCIENTIFIC STANDARDS IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES

TABLE III  
ITEMS RATED IN THE FIRST FIVE POSITIONS BY EACH GROUP OF SCORERS

POSITIONS	GROUPS				
	I <i>Librarians</i>	II <i>Research</i>	III <i>Teacher training</i>	IV <i>Teachers of English</i>	V <i>Administrators</i>
1	F-537 Indispensable equipment	M-256 Appropriations	F-181 Indispensable equipment	K-126 Professional standing of staff	F-243 Indispensable equipment
2	M-507 Appropriations	A-254 Use of the reading room	M-172 Appropriations	I-106 Expert selec- tion of books	N-230 Housing
3	I-480 Expert selec- tion of books	K-253 Professional standing of staff	J-137 Staff organization	F-100 Indispensable equipment	R-223 Statistical records
4	N-467 Housing	F-232 Indispensable equipment	N-135 Housing	J-95 Staff organization	O-215 Status in high school
5	K-464 Professional standing of staff	N-229 Housing	E-133 Organization of library	M-94 Appropriations	E-210 Organization of materials

example, Table III furnishes a basis of comparison of the items rated in the first five positions by each group of scorers. It is interesting to note, from the table, that the only items placed consistently in the first five positions by all five groups of scorers, are indispensable equipment and housing. Next to these two, in consistently high rating, comes appropriations; third is professional standing of staff; fourth come expert selection of books, organization of library materials, and staff organization; and fifth, use of the reading room, statistical records, and status of the library in the high-school organization.

It is interesting to observe further that, although the administrators were the only group to place statistical records within the first five positions, they rather offset this distinction by completely omitting mention of appropriations or professional standing of the staff, two items peculiarly within

their province. The research experts did not include statistical records; they showed a surprisingly practical turn by bringing within this high rating use of the reading room, which would otherwise have been omitted because no other scorers included it.

Four items out of five in three groups, and three items out of five in two groups dealt with matters of organization and administration. Only one item in three groups, and two items in two were concerned with service and use. The conclusion would seem to be that if conditions are made right by organization and administration, the proper service and use will follow as a matter of course.

The ultimate purpose of this study of eighteen items was, as I have indicated, the formulation of standards that would be even more definite than those of 1918 which grew out of questionnaires and criticism of the resulting work. In order to be more scien-

## JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

CHART SHOWING BASIS OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR EXCELLENCE IN HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES: ORGANIZATION—ADMINISTRATION; SERVICE—USE

SCHOOL LIBRARY EXCELLENCE	Primary Responsibility of the					
	Board of Ed.	Superintendent	Principal	Librarian	Teachers	Children
IN ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION						
I. Appropriations	x					
II. Housing		x	x			
III. Equipment		x	x			
IV. Staff Organization and Administration			x	x		
V. Definite Library Policy in High-School Administration		x	x			
IN SERVICE AND USE						
VI. Professional Care of the Library				x		
VII. Service to Readers by Librarian				x		
VIII. Instruction of Pupils by Librarian			x	x		
IX. Use of the Library by Pupils			x	x	x	x
X. Use of the Library by Teachers				x	x	

TENTATIVE MASTER SCORE CARD ONE  
LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

ITEMS	Informal Check				Statistical Rating		
	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Ideal Score	Earned Score	Totals
I. Appropriations							
A. Needs							
1. Initial.....							
2. Maintenance.....							
Total 1 and 2....							
B. Budgeting System.....							
Total A and B...							

## TENTATIVE SCORE CARD ONE—CONTINUED

ITEMS	Informal Check				Statistical Rating		
	Excel- lent	Good	Fair	Poor	Ideal Score	Earned Score	Totals
<b>II. Housing</b>							
A. Reading Room.....							
B. Work Room.....							
C. Closets.....							
D. Extra Housing Facilities.....							
Total A, B, C, D							
<b>III. Equipment</b>							
A. Indispensable							
1. Furniture.....							
2. Supplies.....							
3. Books.....							
4. Other printed matter							
5. Pictures and other visual materials....							
Total 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.							
B. Additional Equipment for Effective Work.....							
Total A and B							
<b>IV. Library Staff Administration</b>							
A. Professional standing of staff.....							
B. Organization and admin- istration							
1. Personnel.....							
2. Staff activities.....							
3. Administrative point of view.....							
4. Relation to other li- braries in the school system.....							
5. Cooperation with other library agen- cies.....							
Total 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.							
Total A and B							
<b>V. Definite Library Policy in High-School Administration</b>							
A. Funds for Library in School Budget.....							
B. Professional Require- ments.....							
C. Library Instruction Scheduled.....							
D. Credit Given for Library Instruction.....							
E. Definite Character of Service Expected by School Officials.....							
Total A, B, C, D, E							
Grand Total							



**TENTATIVE MASTER SCORE CARD TWO**  
**LIBRARY SERVICE AND USE**

ITEMS	Informal Check				Statistical Rating		
	Excel- lent	Good	Fair	Poor	Ideal Score	Earned Score	Totals
<b>VI. Professional Care of the Library</b>							
A. Expert Selection of Books and other Materials.....							
B. Scientific Care of Books and other Materials.....							
C. Essential Records.....							
D. Supplementary Records.....							
E. Organization of Library Materials.....							
Total A, B, C, D, E							
<b>VII. Service to Readers by Librarian</b>							
A. In the Reading Room							
1. Reference.....							
2. Loans.....							
Total 1 and 2...							
B. Publicity.....							
C. Guidance.....							
D. Maintenance of <i>esprit de corps</i> .....							
Total A, B, C, D							
<b>VIII. Instruction of Pupils by Librarian</b>							
A. Course of Study on the Use of Books and Libraries.....							
B. Prearranged Teaching Schedule.....							
C. Adequate Time Allotment per Month.....							
D. Economical Methods....							
E. Credit Towards Graduation.....							
Total A, B, C, D, E							
<b>IX. Use of the Library by Pupils</b>							
A. In the Reading Room....							
B. Home Reading.....							
Total A and B							
<b>X. Use of the Library by Teachers</b>							
A. Personal.....							
B. Professional							
1. In the reading room							
2. In the classroom ...							
Total 1 and 2...							
Total A and B .....							
<b>Grand Total</b>							

## SCIENTIFIC STANDARDS IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES

tific, these new standards will be developed through the use of a score card. A tentative form of this score card has been constructed empirically from the results of the study of 1919. In its completed form, it will be used in securing data necessary in the formulation of new standards for high-school library development and will become the framework for these standards.

At first an attempt was made to base this tentative score card directly upon Table II, but the result proved too cumbersome for practical use. However, the results of the 1919 study, as shown in Tables I, II, and III, served to give a clearer understanding of the materials. It was through a study of these tables that I was able to reorganize the items for the new, and still tentative, form of score card, which is shown in outline below.

The problem of constructing the score card was complicated by lack of definiteness and clarity in the items. It was therefore decided to improve the organization of the items, reducing overlapping and increasing definiteness of meaning. From the standpoint of practicability in scorecard use, it was seen that the items should be grouped in two large classes, (1) library organization and administration, and (2) library service and use. The eighteen items of the original list were appropriately placed, with some slight changes of wording designed to give greater definiteness, in five main classes under each of the two major divisions. This arrangement constituted the framework

for the making of the next score card.

Obviously, a score card sufficiently comprehensive to cover all phases of high-school library organization and administration cannot be included in the closing paragraphs of this article. Master cards, however, can be shown here. There are two of these, one for each of the two large divisions; namely, library organization and administration, and library service and use. (*See* pages 212-214.)

Since many workers today do not make use of scientific measurements in education, it seemed desirable, in planning a high-school library score card for general use, to provide for them as well as for those who wish to employ scientific methods. Accordingly, the score card possesses in its present preliminary form a twofold provision for use (1) for an informal checking of items and (2) for an accurate numerical rating.

Accompanying the card is a chart upon which are indicated persons primarily responsible for conditions affecting the item scored. (*See* page 212.) If a check by the score card shows inadequate appropriations, one is reminded by the chart that the board of education is responsible; if inadequate equipment, that the superintendent or the principal has failed in duty here.

No attempt has been made, in the present tentative form of the card, to assign points for numerical evaluation. This will be done when the completed score card is presented. It is planned that the completed card will form the basis for a new and more definite set of high-school library standards.

## MARKING AND HOME REPORTS

JASPER T. PALMER

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Jasper T. Palmer is principal of the Washington Junior High School in Mount Vernon, New York. He has evolved in his school a system of marking which enables the teacher to place more adequate emphasis on traits of character and forms of achievement other than merely scholastic success. As described in the article which follows, this system of marking should interest high-school teachers and prove of value to them in their efforts to do justice to the growth of the problem.*

A. D. W.

Rating a pupil's work and marking written papers is an arbitrary procedure on the part of the teacher no matter how hard we try to standardize these features. Unfortunately, most of us have been taught to evaluate work on a percentage basis and to glorify the worth-whileness of a piece of work on its final mark rather than on the finished project itself. I think we are getting away from this a bit, both through our own common sense and through the fact that those to whom we are responsible are not judging our worth and results in these terms.

Along with this, many of us are leading our students away from the feeling that they are working for the teachers and simply to "pass" their subject assignments. Our curricula are becoming more vitalized and more directly tied up with life's interest which has a natural tendency to inspire the students to a real love for their work and a joy in attainment. We are also now adapting our work to the different interests and to the different levels of intelligence which makes it possible for every one to succeed, and success means accomplishing something, no matter how simple the task.

Consistent with organizing work on interest and practical basis and rating students according to their different levels of capacity, disciplinary problems are diminishing. We know that when one does not work or does not like his work misconduct just naturally develops. Likewise, when one is interested and can see himself progress he just naturally is no disciplinary problem. This is, to my mind, of greater significance

than simply diminishing our disciplinary work or making easier the mastery of subject matter; it is a feature in citizenship training and character building, which is, after all, fundamental in our educative processes and ultimate goal. I sometimes wish that we could all forget percentages as far as marking work is concerned and get our students to do the same. Of course, a student's work needs to be evaluated so that he may know wherein he failed and what to do in order to make future progress, but as far as a teacher is concerned this can be done in terms of her own words to much better advantage for all concerned. To my mind, it is much better to write on a paper "You are making progress," "This is much better than last week," "This is a particularly well-written statement and shows study," than so many glibly uttered phrases as "Poor work," "Why don't you prepare your lessons?" "A very untidy paper," etc. There is no greater stimulus for good work than recognizing high spots with a minimum amount of emphasis on failures. One's deficiencies can be pointed out constructively in words of the teacher's own choosing much better than arbitrarily rating a paper 40 per cent.

A, B, C, D, or E, G, and F are probably much more to be desired than percentage rating, but even then they are arbitrary and artificial standards and mean little, except the feeling of excellence and superiority for the best marks. Either work is satisfactory or unsatisfactory. If satisfactory there is something in it to commend. If unsatisfactory there is something to be corrected



## MARKING AND HOME REPORTS

and ways pointed out to make the work satisfactory. In Washington Junior High School we are trying to practise the features herein amplified. We still continue to use percentages in such definite subjects as mathematics and spelling and occasionally some teachers use percentages in other work, partly because they have been accustomed to it, but principally because the fashion is still in vogue and percentages are used in the senior high school and in colleges and one must not be too radical in departing from custom. We use the letters A, B, C, and D more, and in our English work we use a double mark, the numerator indicating the subject matter and the denominator indicating the technique. Many of our teachers make oral and written comments in their own words about each student's work.

When we send home a report card marked 70 per cent in arithmetic,  $63\frac{1}{2}$  per cent in English, 90 per cent in history, etc., we have reported to the home a very small part of a student's standing in the school as his teachers really know him; and too, the percentage is merely the teacher's estimate of results which she has been able to get from him for the period which the report covers.

The whole child is no longer judged by his scholastic performances. No up-to-date school now considers its organization complete without particular attention to the physical welfare of its students; and now following close on the heels of this particular emphasis comes his moral well-being. So if we are attempting to organize our work with due consideration to physical education, and character building, as well as scholastic attainments, should we not attempt to seek coöperation with the home in meeting these ends, and report progress accordingly?

How then, shall it be done? No percentages, letters, characters, or symbols will ever take the place of personal conferences. If one of us is particularly concerned about

our own son or daughter in any adventure, we know that we get the only real helpful information and suggestions through personal inquiry, personal interest, and personal conference. The really interested parent makes periodical visits to the school, and his child usually is the most responsive, makes the best progress, and reacts with the best results in proportion to his intellectual capacity. The next best method of getting reports of conditions and progress to the home is through written letters or reports. Such a procedure is almost impossible with the large numbers of students on whom teachers are called to make reports. In a teacher's judgment, a student, whether in primary school or in high school, can usually be reported in terms of satisfactory or unsatisfactory. I have found such a form of reporting very acceptable and know of other schools now using just these terms with satisfaction both to teachers and to parents. I believe, however, teachers should use every opportunity to give special mention to the high spots under satisfactory; and this need not only mention the fact that John has had perfect papers in arithmetic for a considerable length of time, but can note that he is always thoughtful and courteous, always alert to be helpful to teachers and classmates, etc. There is no end of comments that may be made which are pleasing to the home, and encouraging to the student. Under unsatisfactory, the parent is entitled to know in what respect. It may be he is careless in his arithmetic combinations, or that he is not dependable; fails to try to get directions, seek out and overcome his mistakes, etc.

The simple system of satisfactory and unsatisfactory is possible in covering health and civic features of education as well as book work.

A report-card system has been worked out in Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, N.Y., which covers the three sides of the school work; and at the

## JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

same time aims to recognize the best in every individual regardless of his native ability or I.Q. To simplify the entries for teachers, S and U are used for satisfactory and unsatisfactory and H for superior work or work or condition warranting honorable mention. Under health and conduct, as will be seen by illustration, phases under each division are listed as a guide to what may be looked for by both students and parents. If there is a weakness in any particular phase attention is drawn to it by underscoring which parents and students understand.

Under this system of reporting, students are not only kept awake to the fact that their physical condition is taken cognizance of, their character traits observed, and progress in book work noted but each is marked according to his ability, giving credit to his accomplishment ratio as understood by his teachers. That is, a student doing the traditional 80 per cent work might be marked U (unsatisfactory) if he had an I.Q. of 120, and was not using it to full capacity. Likewise, it would be possible for a pupil of 90 I.Q. to get the traditional mark of 65 per cent yet be marked S (satisfactory) on his report card.

In the Washington Junior High School, the report cards are sent out twice a term or four times a year, at the end of the eighth week, and again at the end of the sixteenth week; sent at the end of the sixteenth week instead of at the end of the term as a deficient student still has an opportunity to make some adjustments. It is understood in the homes that supplementary reports are sent out in the interim in case of failure in any respect.

The success of the triangular interest report depends upon the developed attitude of both students and teachers and education of parents that one's health and moral training is of as much importance as the traditional book work. To guard against the danger of

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION  
Mount Vernon, New York

Copyright

## WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

*"Of all knowledge the wise and good seek most to know themselves"—Shakespeare.*Report of..... Grade.....  
Term beginning.....192.....

## To Parents:

Reports regarding HEALTH, CONDUCT, and WORK are sent from the school to the home twice a term, at the end of each eight weeks' period. Supplementary reports are sent home between these periods when a pupil's progress continues to be unsatisfactory.

The close coöperation of home and school are essential to the best progress in habits of health, conduct, and work.

One to two hours homework is expected of each student.

Punctual and regular attendance is expected of all pupils, except in cases of serious illness.

You are cordially invited to visit classes, and confer with principal and teachers. Best results follow when the home and school work together. The schools are yours; inquiries and suggestions are always welcome.

## ATTENDANCE

.... Sessions absent	} from ..... to .....
.... Times tardy	
.... Sessions absent	} from ..... to .....
.... Times tardy	

CONDUCT  
(Citizenship)

## 1. RELIABILITY

Tells the truth; keeps promises; tries to do as he knows parents and teachers would have him do at home and at school; can be depended upon to do as directed.

1st Period  
2d Period

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## 2. SELF-CONTROL

Tries to be master of himself; has a pride in not having to be continually watched; tries to see the difference between right and wrong, and seeing the right to do it; is clean in mind and speech; avoids improper talk; keeps his temper; is careful in the use of English both in the classroom and on the playground; is thrifty.

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## 3. COURTESY

Uses "Thank you," "Please," etc. in speaking to parents, teachers, and classmates; is pleasant when meeting another; uses person's

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# MARKING AND HOME REPORTS

name when addressing him; takes his turn and does not crowd; is attentive when some one else is talking; the boy recognizes that women, girls, and older persons should have first consideration, and removes cap upon meeting women and girls of his acquaintance.

## 4. COÖPERATION

Is punctual; works and plays well with others; recognizes leadership; respects the rights of others; is thoughtful in the use of school paper, pencils, etc.; respects public property; observes school and city regulations; is orderly and helpful to teacher and class.

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## 5. INDUSTRY

Makes good use of time; is faithful in preparation of lessons and particular in all he undertakes; volunteers and does his part in making school profitable and interesting.

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## EXPLANATORY NOTE

"S" indicates that a student is putting forth satisfactory effort.

"U" indicates that a student is not doing his best.

"H" recognizes extraordinary accomplishment.

An underscored phrase emphasizes the need of special attention.

## WORK (Scholarship)

		1st Period	2d Period
Extracurricular Activities.....			
English.....			
Literature.....			
1.	Reading.....		
	Book Report.....		
	Spelling.....		
	Penmanship.....		
2.	Latin.....		
	French.....		
3.	Social Science.....		
	General Science.....		
4.	Arithmetic-Algebra.....		
	Business Training.....		
	Typewriting.....		
	Industrial Arts.....		
5.	Household Arts.....		
	Physical Education.....		
	Music.....		
	Penmanship.....		
Art.....			

## PARENT'S SIGNATURE

1st Period .....

2d Period .....

Parent's signature indicates that the reports have been inspected; not that they have been approved or disapproved. Prompt return of this card to the school will be appreciated.

## HEALTH

(Habits and Physical Conditions)

1st Period  
2d Period

### 1. GENERAL APPEARANCE

Is clean in body and clothing; is healthfully dressed; has clean head and hair, neck and ears, hands and nails; has hair neatly combed, tie in order, and shoes clean.

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### 2. TEETH

Is careful in daily brushing; has cavities filled; and decayed teeth removed.

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### 3. THROAT AND NOSE

Has healthy tonsils and breathing free from adenoid obstruction; is free from mouth breathing; is free from speech defects; has pleasing voice.

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### 4. EYES AND EARS

Vision is normal, or corrected by glasses which are worn; eyes are in good physical condition; hearing normal.

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### 5. PLAY AND PHYSICAL EXERCISES

Is alert in setting-up drills; enters into the spirit of games and recreation work; has good posture and general carriage; has good poise and bearing in conversation and recitations.

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## REMARKS

Homeroom teacher and personal adviser.

unjustly or unfairly marking a student in reliability, etc., he is first given an opportunity to rate himself and is told this is all to help him in adjusting himself to conditions in life. He makes his entry under conduct in pencil. If the teacher, after looking over his card, feels he may have erred in judgment, he is called into private consultation with home or official teacher for correction. Rarely is a student's mark changed without his acknowledgment that the teacher's judgment is right. Boys and girls are also given to understand that parents are welcomed in conference if they disagree in rating in any particular. In fact, parent coöperation is encouraged in determining the



conduct marks. Students rate themselves under number 1 and number 5 in physical conditions; this they are able to judge rather accurately. Numbers 2, 3, and 4 are supplied by the school nurse in coöperation with the home-class teacher.

We feel there is merit in just the three terms, U, S, and H marking. When one tries to determine excellent, very good, good, fair, poor, very poor, or similar terms, he is encountering the same objection as when trying to use percentage marking. One is either satisfactory or unsatisfactory whether it be a student in school, the teacher in her work, or a workman of any kind. If satisfactory, there are usually outstanding qualities that can well be recognized. On these report cards we do this under Remarks. If unsatisfactory, the student knows why and too, this can be entered under Remarks or emphasized through the medium of underscoring, etc.

I might say that we have made rather an interesting discovery in connection with the different standards of honesty. The majority of boys and girls classify as dishonest only such things as telling an untruth and cheating, or taking something that does not belong to them. Evasion, misrepresentation, failure to do work one knows he should, etc., is not considered dishonest by many, we have found. Occasionally a parent questions the mark in reliability on this score. In fact we have had more exceptions taken to the mark in reliability than all the others combined; but the matter is discussed in conference, it clears up, and we believe we have developed a considerable higher standard of what is *right* through this medium.

The logical place for the use of this type of report card is undoubtedly in the junior high school although I see no reason why

it is not equally as helpful in the senior high school if the students as well as teachers can get away from the idea that marks, examinations, etc., are the goals, and that one's success in school is not measured by scholastic accomplishments alone. I might say we are using the same type of report card in one of the platoon schools containing the fifth and sixth grades. It seems to work as well, except we do not have each child mark himself under Conduct. This would seem a little too much to expect. We do, however, lead each child to see *why* he is given his particular mark.

To further emphasize the value of the method of marking and the threefold features of school life, we have worked out a plan of winning the school letter. So often school honors are awarded for scholastic standing alone and only the few bright-minded students are able to win recognition. Through the plan I am about to explain, it is possible for every student who tries and does his *best* to win recognition. Also the method is very simple from a clerical point of view; many involve so much bookkeeping, averaging, etc., that all joy of coöperation is lost to the teacher. In our plan, all S's and no U's entitles one to the school letter. If won a second time, a star is awarded which may be worn with the school letter (monogram WJHS, which was designed by one of the students in competition for the award). We also award high honors for any one who receives all H's, but this is rare, and not really necessary to get what we are after; i.e., one's best—satisfactory. A few in Washington Junior High have won high honors. But as will be seen from this plan, honors cannot be won in one field of educational endeavor alone. The *whole* child—not a part—is our objective.

## A MENTAL HYGIENE APPROACH TO GUIDANCE IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

GERTRUDE M. BABCOCK

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Gertrude M. Babcock is principal of the House of Jane Addams, Northeastern High School, Detroit, Michigan. Although the matter presented in her article seems to her to be a matter of course we feel sure that it will be stimulating and revealing to many of our readers. This is the first of a series of articles on the subject of mental hygiene in the high school, edited by W. M. Proctor.*

A. D. W.

There is something very challenging about the senior high school of today. Here are boys and girls from all the nations of the earth with varying degrees of intelligence, with divergent backgrounds and cultures, and with half-formed ambitions and plans for the future. And such crowds of them! Industry no longer wants them at fifteen and sixteen. Many parents have learned the bitterness of being unskilled laborers and are straining every possible resource to keep their children in school. The junior high school has been functioning admirably and the results of all these influences are larger and larger high schools with more finely differentiated courses. The problems of a counselor are sometimes very bewildering. Mental hygiene offers interesting solutions.

The mental-hygiene movement concerns itself with three things: first, the study and improvement of conditions among the mentally ill; second, the discovery of defectives among the population in order that they may be given adequate attention; and third, preventive measures among normal people. With the first two phases the counselor, while aware of them, and interested in them, is not vitally concerned, but the third phase should be full of meaning. Terman and Almack<sup>1</sup> estimate "that one child out of fifteen is more than ordinarily predisposed to the development of mental complexes unfavorable to the healthy and co-ordinated functioning of the intellect, emotions, and will. . . . It becomes the duty,

then, of those charged with the education of the young to recognize the dangers incident to mental development, to identify the child of neuropathic tendency, and to throw about him the influences of training and environment which will direct him into the paths of normal thought and action."

But what are the paths of normal thought and action or, in other words, what is a healthy mind? Karl A. Menninger<sup>2</sup> says, "Let us define mental hygiene as the adjustment of human beings to the world and to each other with a maximum of effectiveness and happiness. It is not merely efficiency or contentment or the grace of obeying the rules of the game cheerfully. It is all of these together. It is the ability to maintain an even temper, an alert intelligence, socially considerate behavior, and a happy disposition. This I think is a healthy mind."

If the school is "to throw about the student the influences of training and environment" and the counselor is one of the school's agents, where must he logically begin? The writer believes he must begin with himself. Does he bring to his work a body rested from fatigue and vibrant with good health? Does he live a well-rounded, happy life full of normal satisfactions? What type of creative work does he enjoy? What emotional outlets does he have? In other words, does he live a full, rich life mentally, physically, and emotionally?

The next thing of importance is the counselor's attitude towards the student who

<sup>1</sup> Terman and Almack, *The Hygiene of the School Child* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929), p. 292 and p. 294.

<sup>2</sup> Karl A. Menninger, *The Human Mind* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1930).

comes to him. Emerson once said that each person brought something new into the world. If the counselor believes this, he will think of the student not as a bit of clay to be molded, but as an original personality worthy of the utmost respect no matter how foolish and irresponsible has been his behavior. This point of view will lead him to aid the student to understand himself, to desire to train himself, to form his own judgments, and to grow up independently into an adult world. Advising will give place to guidance for, after all, the responsibility for decisions should rest as far as possible in the hands of the person who is living the life. Nothing will strengthen a student's faith in himself more than a counselor's belief that he is capable of making decisions. Such security and independence are two of the greatest needs of youth.

The counselor should aspire to that degree of objectivity that will make possible a perfectly impersonal point of view. This objectivity should be accompanied by both sympathy and friendliness. Great care should be taken to see that his own personal experience does not color all his activity.

Finally, the counselor must have patience. The school is only one of the factors that is educating the student and it often takes time to break down old habits and establish new ones. While the counselor will never have an ideal set-up, he should use all available agencies and, with as much optimism and serenity as he is able to muster, await the outcome.

The mental-hygiene point of view takes into consideration the whole child and although the mental hygienist is preëminently interested in the emotional factors, he does not neglect the physical side of the child's development. Although Emily had been in school eight semesters she had succeeded in finishing only half her course. She was a very large, overgrown, obese girl, had an abnormal appetite for sweets, was subject

to severe headaches, and was very talkative, often telling fanciful tales with a sex background. Her mentality was normal. After several attempts were made to discover what was blocking her progress, she was sent to a diagnostic hospital for a physical examination. This examination revealed the fact that she was suffering from a disturbance of the pituitary gland. A very careful treatment led to her losing sixty pounds, and to her gaining better control of her behavior.

Anna was failing in English and Latin. Discouraged and disheartened she poured out her tale of woe. As the counselor listened to the story she was struck by her pallor, flabbiness, poor posture, and poor teeth—all marks of faulty nutrition. A question or two in regard to diet brought out the fact that Anna's family ate only one meal a week together—that meal being Sunday dinner. Both parents worked and the children ate when they felt like it. The day before the conference Anna had eaten a hot dog, a serving of jello, a bowl of soup, some bread, and an ice cream soda. The school nurse took Anna in charge and within three months she was a happier and more energetic girl.

The mental-hygiene point of view implies a recognition of differences in mental capacity. Elsie was a pretty, curly-headed girl of sixteen. Shortly after first card marking she fainted in the lavatory. Her mother was sent for and told us a tale of repeated faintings at school, but never at home. This accounted to her mother for her poor school work, for how could she compete with other girls when she was so weak and sickly? Reports from her family physician showed no physical cause for fainting spells. A Stanford-Binet test showed that Elsie was eleven years old mentally. She was forced by our school to compete with normal children and the results were not satisfying, so she found a very dramatic way of escape. A program more suited to her capacity



## GUIDANCE IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

was arranged for her. Her teachers were asked to see that she was never pushed too hard and she completed the year quite happily. Incidentally, she never fainted again.

The emotional factor is always present, even in cases where the physical and mental factors are predominant. Louise entered as a transfer from another high school with no credits. She explained that she had been taken out of school to go to Chicago to stay with her aunt. Very early in the semester Louise was absent for three days. An attendance teacher called at her home to discover that she was a truant. Her mother came up to school quite sure that a mistake had been made. During the conference that followed Louise presented a most hard impenetrable surface. Her replies to questions were rude but courageous. She was not a "yes ma'am"; she expressed just what she felt and that was quite a good deal. Upon going into the history of her childhood, the counselor was struck by two things: first, she had been a sickly child from birth until she was ten years old—a constant care and worry to her mother; second, she had grown up beside her sister Ada who was a strong healthy girl and a fine helpful daughter. Here was a clear picture of a child who did not feel secure in the family. Finally, the counselor asked her if she had ever felt that her parents loved Ada more than they did her. She burst immediately into tears; her hard impenetrable surface melted and left just an unhappy child. The mother, a woman of more than usual intelligence, immediately sensed the whole situation. She quickly brought Louise into the security she needed, gave her more responsibility in the home, and Louise gave no more trouble.

Imogen is colored. Her I.Q. is 110. She was born in the West Indies and was brought to the United States when she was a little girl. She still remembers her experiences on the boat and the apronful of pen-

nies she picked from the deck after she had danced her childish interpretation of the "Charleston." Her father's death was a great sorrow to her. Poverty and stepfathers followed, and little Imogen, the dancer, who could attract so much attention, faded from the picture and another girl who had horrid clothes and not too much to eat and very little love from her family appeared. Was it any wonder that every week or two Imogen would stage a scene in one of her classes? Some new clothes, a chance to gain attention in a legitimate way, a better understanding at home have changed Imogen into a happier girl.

Elaine is a quiet little mouse of a girl. She gave no one any trouble, but made no friends. The nearest corner was her refuge. One day in art class it was discovered that Elaine had distinctiveness and originality in drawing. Two years of creative work has transformed her into a bright-eyed young adult with a great deal of quiet charm. She is a member of the honorary art club and has won two awards in city competitions.

Mary Lou had carried her childish habit of biting her nails into her sixteenth year. She is a very successful girl; intellectual, musical, and altogether charming. As a little girl she was very much worried by the fact that her father and mother did not get along well together. Finally they separated and, although her home became free of conflict, the nail biting hung over. An understanding of how impossible it sometimes is for two perfectly splendid people to live in peace and harmony together and a more tolerant attitude towards the faults and difficulties of her parents have removed the conflict and the habit is gone.

The above illustrations are typical of the types of behavior problems that come to the counselor's attention. The handling of these problems does not show any great amount of either wisdom or knowledge but does show an effort to get behind the overt

behavior to the causal factor. There is great need of revamping of our whole curriculum so that each student may find the release and satisfaction that comes from work well done. Dr. Burnham<sup>3</sup> says there are three things necessary for happiness: a task, a plan, and freedom to work out the plan. Give each student an absorbing piece of work which is to him vital and let him carry it out in an atmosphere of freedom and you will go far towards giving him the confidence and security in himself that is so necessary for a happy and healthful mental life. Purposeful activity will take the place of listening, doing will take the place of dreaming, and achievement will take the place of repeated failure.

Frankwood E. Williams urges that the high school give special attention to the mental health of the brilliant student. A mentally ill man in a hospital will do little harm to his community, but an emotionally unadjusted newspaper editor or doctor or clergyman or novelist may wreak havoc on all with whom he comes into contact.

The high school might well lay some plans for pre-parental education. The study of delinquency has brought to light the great significance of the first five years in a child's life. The nursery schools are gradually perfecting methods of training girls for motherhood and boys for fatherhood. Dr. Gesell<sup>4</sup> says, "From the broad standpoint of public policy, no more far-reaching meas-

ure in behalf of children of the future could be instituted than a systematic and sincere type of pre-parental education. This education must be so conceived and so administered that it will reach the little mothers in grammar school and girls in high school, normal school, and college. It must reach also the boys in school, academy, and college. It should teach in unmistakable terms the meaning of marriage. It should give substance to these three simple axioms: "All children are endowed through their parents with a personality. This personality grows. Its growth can be guided by the parents." The writer is watching with a great deal of interest for reports on the experimental course in pre-parental education for senior boys being carried on in the Long Beach (California) High School. She has watched with great interest the growing popularity of a course in "Child Care" for girls that is being given in Northeastern High School with a nursery school under the direction of the Merrill-Palmer School as a laboratory.

What then are the implications of the mental hygiene approach to the problems of counseling?

1. The counselor should watch carefully over his own mental health.
2. The counseling program should include a recognition of the physical, mental, and emotional forces that are acting upon the individual.
3. The counselor should aid the student in finding a task, a plan, and freedom to carry it out. This looks to curriculum reconstruction.
4. The counselor should look to the formation of courses in pre-parental education within the high school.

<sup>3</sup> W. H. Burnham, *The Normal Mind* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1924), pp. 207-208.

<sup>4</sup> Arnold Gesell, "The Mental Hygiene Service for Children" in *Social Aspects of Mental Hygiene*, Frankwood E. Williams, editor. (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1925).

## LATIN AS A WAY OF LIFE

CHARLES A. TONSOR

EDITOR'S NOTE: Charles Tonsor is principal of the Grover Cleveland High School in New York City. His major interest has been in the field of Latin teaching. He presents here a very strong argument for the favorable influence that may be produced in the life of a high-school pupil by the study of Latin. Perhaps some of our readers will find themselves in disagreement with Dr. Tonsor and will wish to take up the cudgels in defense of a somewhat different point of view. This is the first of a series of articles on "subjects and ways of life," edited by John L. Tildsley.

A. D. W.

At the risk of being called a plagiarist by the teachers of science, I have adopted this title, part of which was used by the science committee appointed in connection with a study of science in New York City schools, as the title of its report. I do not fear the charge, for, if any one has plagiarized, the science committee has plagiarized from Plato and Aristotle.

Actually, however, the bond between science and the classics is an extremely close one; the classics gave the modern world the study of science; Kepler, Galileo, and Bruno were but branches of the trunk of classical tradition that went back to Ptolemy, Eratosthenes, Epicurus, and a galaxy of intellects whose philosophic genius, long before the age of precision instruments and electric arcs, "plumbed the universe to its depths."

Latin is as vital a way of life as is science. It is as scientific in its method as is science. Whereas science employs as the materials of intellectual activity the phenomena of nature, Latin employs the phenomena of language. Science deals with the development of the universe from matter and force—omitting Einstein and other modern mathematical physicists whose kaleidoscopic theories follow each other in changing succession so rapidly that it is almost impossible to know which is the accepted belief at any given time. Latin deals with the development of a universe of ideas from words and their relations. As the province of science is fundamentally material, the province of Latin is fundamentally spiritual.

Latin is first a way of life because it

trains the student in that storehouse of words which bulks large in the daily use of his own language. Here is a proof: a clipping from the *New York Times* under date of November 2, 1931. I have italicized only those words the derivation of which from the Latin is quite immediate; there are others that a pedant would at once insist must be counted in. I have italicized each word but once; remove these from the article and there is nothing left. The style is permeated with the spirit of Latin; the vocabulary maintains a tone of dignity and clarity which is noticeable by even a tyro. This clipping proves that Latin is so essential a part of English that for this reason it must be regarded as a way of life.

Four Chicago public enemies and a politician may be taken to the Federal penitentiary at Leavenworth this month as a result of the Supreme Court's rejection of Ralph J. Capone's plea.

Ralph Capone will be taken to prison as soon as notification that his petition for a writ of *certiorari* was denied reaches here from Washington. That will require two or three days, when a *mittimus* will be issued by the Circuit Court of Appeals and the marshal will arrest him.

Al Capone, held in the Cook County jail without bail, pending appeal from his eleven-year sentence for tax evasion, may go to the penitentiary with his brother, as his lawyers have said that if they failed to get bail from the Supreme Court he would wish to start serving his term and receive credit.

The other public enemies facing early confinement are Terry Druggan and Frankie Lake, the original "beer barons," and the politician is State Representative Lawrence C. O'Brien. Pleas of guilty to income tax fraud, entered by Druggan and Lake, were contingent as to felony counts on



the outcome of the Ralph Capone and O'Brien appeals.

The Supreme Court's action in refusing to review Capone's case renders Druggan and Lake subject to maximum sentences of ten years each in the penitentiary and two years each in the county jail.

Latin is a way of life because it is a training in scientific method. Consider the simple sentence: *Insulam Argonautae attigerunt*. I have heard beginners blandly translate, "The island touched the Argonauts." Asked what that meant, they said it meant what it said. Asked how the island could touch the Argonauts, they replied that it hit them as they came up. Asked why they were sure that the island did the touching, they replied that it came first in the sentence. The simple little Latin sentence disclosed an ignorance of the process of thought, a lack of appreciation of word significance that was appalling. And these children had had two terms of high-school English instruction!

Before they were finished, what had they gained from the simple sentence? A lesson that will stand by them through life: a sentence is not a hodgepodge of words thrown together, but it is a definite unit of thought which conveys a definite meaning, a meaning that is not always what one guesses it may be, but a meaning which demands observation, analysis, synthesis, hypothesis, verification, and finally application! Scientists will recognize at once that we are in the train of the scientific method; that we differ from them only in the material with which that method is concerned.

*Insulam*—how similar to *insula*, yet how different to the eye of the real observer. *Argonautae*—how similar to the genitive singular, yet how different to the youth who has synthesized it with *attigerunt*, a compound observation, if you will, of two associated linguistic phenomena. Then the hypothesis: the islands the Argonauts touched. Then the verification, which is common sense, the islands touch the Ar-

gonauts, or the Argonauts touch the islands? The result: the Argonauts touched the island.

Latin is a way of life because it teaches the weighing of alternatives and the selection of the preferable course. Let us pass from the simple Latin of the beginner to Caesar, Cicero, Vergil. Here is a sentence from *De Bello Gallico*, VI, 13: *Sed de his duobus generibus alterum est druidum, alterum equitum: illi rebus divinis intersunt, sacrificia publica ac privata procurant, religiones interpretantur*. The literal translation gives the student: (1) the correct interpretation of *de*, the selection of the preposition "of" for the correct rendition; (2) *rebus divinis* as meaning something else than "divine things." He must select from several possibilities: divine affairs, affairs relating to the deities, matters in the province of the gods, matters relegated to the control of the gods. Having settled this problem he faces a third, in *intersunt*, which he now sees cannot be taken to mean "be between." He must choose from several alternatives: be engaged in, be concerned with, have to do with, take part in. The final translation is the result of observation, discrimination, suspended judgment, final selection. These are assuredly the habits which mark the cultured and disciplined mind.

Get these from his work in English composition? Never! His composition is dashed off in order to get time for the ball game. Three out of forty are selected to be read in class. His comes back with a few red marks and pothooks, cabalistic symbols of errors committed. There is lacking the strict accountability for a definite job, the concrete problem presented for a careful solution. Every Latin sentence does just this, no matter how simple the narrative.

Here is a selection from Cicero's *Pro Archia Poeta*, XII, 30: *An vero tam parvi animi videamur esse omnes, qui in re publica atque in his vitae periculis laboribusque ver-*

## LATIN AS A WAY OF LIFE

*samur, ut, cum usque ad extremum spatium nullum tranquillum atque otiosum spiritum duxerimus, nobiscum simul moritura omnia arbitremur?* What have we here? Can we say, literally, "small minded"? What does that mean? Can we say "short sighted"? What does that mean? How about "of such little intelligence"? Will "little faith" do here, echoing the New Testament? We have a very important problem, the correct translation of this phrase is the keystone of the whole passage and the essential step in the artistic rendering of the passage. How about "meager reasoning power," or "meager capacity to reason"? Let us try it. "Indeed, can it be that we seem to be of such meager capacity to reason that." Problems galore face us. Can the English preserve the Latin idiom, the genitive of description? How about *videamur*, does it mean "seem," is it a true passive of the verb "to see," or is it a middle voice, "seem to ourselves"? The solution of these problems is a creative act, but in addition to this is a worthy creative act. After trial and rejection we come to "Can it be that we value our own intellectual ability at so low a standard . . . that we assume all our achievements will die, along with our bodies?" And as if these were not sufficient, the student has the problem of *cum . . . duxerimus*, in which he must determine whether the idea is temporal, casual, circumstantial, or concessive.

At the risk of being too concrete, consider this passage from Vergil's *Aeneid*.

Quaerenti et tectis urbis sine fine furenti  
infelix simulacrum atque ipsius umbra Creüsae  
visa mihi ante oculos et nota maior imago.

In the text, the passage bears the heading "the phantom of Creüsa."

Here are three words: *simulacrum, umbra, imago*; they mean the same, yet are all different in the degree of intensity that they portray. "Likeness, shadow, copy." Shall we say likeness, or try semblance; if we take semblance, what connotations has it that are

not in this passage? Does semblance mean something so changed as to be not really a likeness? Shall we say shadow, or shade? What is the difference? Which fits better here? We cannot say copy; what shall it be? Phantom, ghost, wraith, apparition, spook, spirit, specter, sprite? Here is an exercise in the discrimination of the use of words that is hard to equal in any other setting.

Enough for the scientific aspect, the aspect of discipline. Now for the spiritual. Latin is a way of life because it is logic on fire, economics in life, ethics in action, and history alive. Says Froude in *Caesar, a Sketch*, page 4, ". . . particular epochs in history have the charm for us which dramas have . . . to see the past it is not enough for us to be able to look at it through the eyes of contemporaries. . . . They must have had eyes which could see things in their true proportions. They must have had, in addition, the rare literary powers which can convey to others through the medium of language an exact picture of their own minds; and such happy combinations occur but occasionally in thousands of years."

The logic of Cicero's impeachment of Catiline is a far different thing from the logic of the textbook. It stirs man's heart and soul; it is a moving force which colors the pages of history; it is an example which has affected the pleading of the world. *Servi me hercule mei si me isto pacto metuerent, ut te metuunt omnes cives tui, domum meam relinquendam putarem; tu tibi urbem non arbitraris?* (In *Catilinam*, I, VII, 14.) "God be my witness! if my slaves hated me with that oneness of accord with which all your fellow citizens hate you, I would think that I ought to leave that household behind me! Don't you think that you ought to leave the city?" Logicians will recognize the parity of reasoning clothed with all the heat of righteous indignation.

Latin is economics in its life setting. Here is the proof. *Nam in ceteris rebus cum venit*

*calamitas, tum detrimentum accipitur; at in vectigalibus non solum adventus mali, sed etiam metus ipse adfert calamitatem.* (Cicero, *Manilian Law*, VI, 16.) "Now in other occupations of life, when misfortune actually arrives, then the damage is done; but in finance, not only the arrival of misfortune but even the mere fear thereof brings disaster." This little lesson finds its justification in the raid on the dollar which Europe, especially France, made a few weeks ago. The English pound gave evidence of what was coming long before the actual situation broke upon the financial world.

Or this: *Nam tum, cum in Asia res magnas permulti amiserant, scimus Romae solutione impedita fidem concidisse. Non enim possunt una in civitate multi rem ac fortunas amittere, ut non plures secum in eandem trahant calamitatem.* (*Manilian Law*, VII, 19.) "For at the time that many had lost their investments in Asia Minor, we know that here at Rome, the liquidation of indebtedness being seriously interfered with, the credit structure collapsed. For, in any given state, large numbers of people cannot lose their property and fortunes without dragging the large majority along with them into the same calamity." The collapse of 1929 shows that this is true. If the economists had only studied Cicero a little more carefully than they did the market graphs, they would not have talked so glibly of the "new economics" and the "outmoding of the business cycle."

Or this: . . . *haec fides atque haec ratio pecuniarum, quae Romae, quae in foro versatur, implicata est cum illis pecuniis Asiaticis et cohaeret; ruere illa non possunt, ut haec non eodem labefacta motu concidant.* (*Manilian Law*, VII, 19.) "This system of credit and finance which operates here at Rome, yes, right here in the forum, is completely involved in the monetary systems of Asia Minor and is part and parcel of them.

Those cannot collapse without the system here, tottering under the same shock, collapsing along with them." Substitute South America, or Europe, and the whole situation of the past two months becomes clear.

It is a favorite argument that this may be learned in translation. The refutation is that *it isn't*. If the purely technically trained economists and financial experts and the politicians governing the involved countries did not see this in such a light as to enable the people to escape the consequences of the violation of the principles involved, then the only way of teaching the principle is through the personal experience of mentally suffering the calamity and expressing the situation in the mother tongue. In other words, the student of Latin lives the situation almost as keenly as if he were the person concerned. He therefore studies living economics.

Latin is ethics in action. We have heard a great deal about the march of the tin soldiers and the rattle of the tin box lately, especially in New York City. *Quem enim imperatorem possumus ullo in numero putare, cuius in exercitu centuriatus veneant atque venierint? Quid hunc hominem magnum aut amplum de re publica cogitare, qui pecuniam, ex aerario, depromptam ad bellum administrandum aut propter cupiditatem provinciae magistratibus diviserit aut propter avaritiam Romae in quaestu reliquerit? Vestra admurmuratio facit, Quirites, ut agnoscere videamini, qui haec fecerint; ego autem nomino neminem.* (*Manilian Law*, XIII, 37.) "For what leader can we regard as worth a farthing, in whose army captaincies are for sale and have actually been sold? What can we believe this man thinks about the government, thoughts noble or generous, who, either because of his desire to secure a province, has 'whacked up' with the magistrates the money drawn from the public treasury for the prosecution of the war, or, because of



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his greed, has left it at Rome farmed out at interest! Your murmuring, fellow citizens, proves that you are fully aware of who has done this; I, however, mention no names." If more people studied the *Manilian Law*, there would be less need of Seabury investigations in New York City.

One thing more that proves Latin a way of life. It places the student in companionship with not only the best thought of the ages, but the most profound masters of style. Caesar will always be the model for clear, concise narrative; Cicero for inspired oratory; Vergil for inimitable poetry. All races and all creeds recognize the heights of attainment to which these have climbed. They have been imitated, but never equaled; they have given inspiration to the best minds of literature and stimulated the ascent to greatness by the study of their works.

In fine, Latin is a way of life because it gives the student a philosophy of life. *Facilis descensus Averno . . . sed revocare gradum, . . . hic opus, hic labor est.* (Vergil, *Aeneid*, VI, 126.)

*Terga dabo et Turnum fugientem haec terra videbit?*

*Usque adeone mori miserum est? Vos o mihi manes*

*Este boni, quoniam superis aversa voluntas.*

*Sancta ad vos anima atque istius inscia culpa*

*Descendam, magnorum haud umquam indignus avorum.* (*Aeneid*, XII, 645-9.)

"Shall I turn tail, and shall this land see Turnus in craven flight? Is it so wretched a matter as this to die? O ye shades, be kind to me, since the will of the gods above is against me. A spirit undefiled shall I descend to you, untainted by such shame, by no means ever unworthy of noble sires."

*Multa dies varique labor mutabilis aevi*

*Rettulit in melius, multos alterna revisens*

*Lusit et in solido rursus Fortuna locavit.* (*Aeneid*, XI, 425-427.)

"Many a day and changing toils of age in flux have turned for the better; and Fortune revisiting anon has made sport of many and again placed them on the firm ground of prosperity."

We need a little of this philosophy today. And the greater the need therefor, the more cogent the proof that Latin is a way of life.

## RADIO IN EDUCATION

FRANK M. PELTON

EDITOR'S NOTE: Frank M. Pelton is an instructor in the School of Education of New York University. His article presents a very interesting summary of the present status of radio in education and considerations as to its future possibilities.

A. D. W.

A few weeks ago President Hoover pronounced his views on this period of economic depression. They were literally "heard around the world." A few mornings later, citizens of the United States heard King George of England dedicate a hospital in London. Only recently one could have heard a concert of chamber music played in Vienna. Those Americans who were interested in the Antarctic Expedition headed by Admiral Byrd frequently heard

the cheery voices of those daring explorers. All of this could have been enjoyed without taking a single step from the study. One can go on and on, enumerating instance after instance where he has found himself in contact with other persons, though in reality they were miles apart. All of this is the result of the invention and growth of radio.

By simply turning a dial, part of a complex and delicately tuned instrument, space

and time are apparently annihilated. Millions of people who, by geographic barriers, are miles apart, are brought in touch with each other. National feelings and animosities give way and the world becomes one large family. By means of this same dial, we can select the situations which give us the most satisfaction; by means of an electric switch, we can either throw open the door between ourselves and the outside world or we can close it. We are still the "masters of our souls." But in radio, the child of the twentieth century, which has opened marvelous channels of communication, we have a means for the enrichment of our spiritual life, the cultivation of our intellect, the satisfaction of our seemingly insatiable desire for entertainment, the development of human understanding, and development of the cultural side of life which was unknown to the preceding century. Radio gives us a powerful tool for educating mankind. It is a fitting supplement to reading and writing, and can be classed along with them as one of the great inventions affecting the advancement of the human race.

No matter what the tool, it can work for both good and evil. If it is to be good and beneficial, it must be guided and directed; left to follow its own course, evil is apt to result; and so with radio, admitted to be a potential tool for the education of man, it must be properly and carefully handled if it is to be a benefit. The question, then, is, What has been done and what can be done to make radio an efficient tool for education?

To date there have been a considerable number of attempts to use the radio as direct means for teaching, but practically nothing has been done to test and check the results. Most of the evidence available concerning its usability is subjective. Perhaps the radio is too new for one to expect any proof as to its practicability, yet it seems as if now is the time for such research in the field.

If it is a good tool, it should be put into wide use. School people have been slow to adopt the radio because its usefulness has not been clearly demonstrated and established.

The experiments with the radio have been carried on in colleges and universities, in secondary schools, in elementary schools, in the one-room rural schools, and in adult education. None of them have been far-reaching, but they illustrate the trend in radio experimentation. Few of them can show objective proof of results obtained, but all of them stimulate thought and point out the need for future studies.

Attempts are being made to give instruction on the college level over the radio. Oglethorpe University in Georgia has announced that such courses will be given and that they will be credited towards a degree. Using these courses to fulfill course requirements, it will be possible to earn a degree by radio broadcastings from the university. Examinations will be sent out covering these courses and efforts will be made to maintain collegiate standards in awarding such degrees. Whether or not such a policy will yield results comparable to, or better than, those of the conventional training remains to be seen. However, one sees in such an endeavor the attempt to utilize radio and to test its value as a medium for collegiate training.

To the writer's knowledge, no other institution is going so far in adopting the "radio method" as is Oglethorpe. Other institutions are offering courses over the air, but such courses will not fulfill the requirements for a degree. They are given mostly in the spirit in which correspondence courses are given. Some schools give courses for teachers which are designed to help them professionally. No study has reported the results and benefits accruing from these broadcasts.

Broadcasting companies are attempting to

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organize programs which will be attractive to college students. The Columbia Broadcasting Company through its school of the air has organized lectures and various programs which aim directly at benefiting the college student. No instance has been found of an institution which sets aside time for students to listen to these programs in an attempt to utilize them in connection with the regular college teaching. If students profit from the School of the Air, they do so in spite of colleges and not because of them. The advisory board for the School of the Air is made up of a number of eminent teachers and educators. With proper co-ordination of efforts, it seems as if the radio could bring to college campuses many splendid things which would be of value to the students.

Secondary schools are anxious to obtain receiving sets as part of their equipment. The extent to which they are used, however, does not seem to justify the purchase. These schools cannot by nature of their student body and of their function give instruction over the air to young people off the campus so effectively as can colleges. The usage which the secondary school can make of radio is entirely that of the classroom, utilizing broadcasted programs to supplement the classroom teaching. The teaching of music profits most, no doubt, from the radio with such organized hours as those conducted by Dr. Damrosch. Likewise, a number of other splendid concerts are available during the school day.

The Damrosch hour is probably the best attempt at making the radio valuable in education. Dr. Walter Damrosch, employed by the National Broadcasting Company, arranges a number of concerts, each one appropriate for a certain age level of appreciation and understanding. He prepares a manual which gives the selections to be played during each concert, a short description of them, and suggestions for the

teacher to follow in preparing pupils for the broadcasts. These booklets are free to any teacher who will write for one. Dr. Damrosch is assisted in his work by an advisory board containing a number of men who are eminent in public-school music. Following a set schedule, Dr. Damrosch leads his orchestra in the performance of the program announced for that hour. He gives descriptions of the music that is to be played in an attempt to help the children better to appreciate the selection. After the concert, the teacher has, by means of tests accompanying the manual, devices for checking on the students' attention to the program, on the child's responsiveness to the program, and on the general effect of the music. All in all, this is very well planned, and music teachers are most enthusiastic about this attempt to enrich the teaching of music to school children.

Attempts are being made to formulate programs in other fields which will be as effective as the Damrosch hour. According to a statement from the National Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, committees are in the process of organization for developing programs in agriculture, art, astronomy, chemistry, drama and theater, economics, engineering, geography, geology, history, home economics, international relations, labor, language, library coöperation, mathematics, medicine, museum coöperation, parent education and child study, physics, philosophy, political science, psychology, public health, rural education, and science. Whether or not the work of these committees will be fruitful in bringing forth anything of value to secondary education remains to be seen.

At the present time, broadcasting companies are presenting programs which claim to be of educational character. These are not planned to supplement the classroom nor are they organized especially for the teacher's use. However, some teachers avail



themselves of them and attempt to use them in connection with their class work. They report that the results are not the best, due mostly to the inappropriateness of the broadcasted program. This does not disprove the value of the intention of the companies in making their offerings educational; it does suggest that all educational offerings may not be of value to the classroom teacher.

On the secondary level, work is being done but no results are available either to prove or to disprove the effectiveness of the radio as a classroom device for teaching.

In the field of elementary education, some attempts have been made to evaluate the results of the "radio method" objectively. The radio is used here for the same purpose as in secondary schools, as an aid to classroom teaching. Wisconsin has given us the most objective evaluation of this method.

Experiments were carried out in teaching civics and music. Two classes in civics were used for the experiment. One was taught by using a textbook and the regular classroom procedure along with current events. The second class was taught as the first except that the classroom teaching was augmented with radio programs. After the teaching, each class was given the same examination, composed of 50 questions, 25 covering the regular class work and 25 covering current events. The results showed a critical ratio of 2.47 in favor of the radio group. The same experiment was repeated, and the results of the second testing showed a critical ratio of 2.14 in favor of the radio group. (A critical ratio of 2 or more is looked on by statisticians as quite reliable.)

Classes were organized in music using selected radio programs, such as the Damosch concerts, the programs sent out by the Music in the Air, etc. No objective test was arranged. The work was evaluated, however, by outstanding teachers of music,

and they gave the movement their endorsement.

Teachers of one-room schools in Connecticut found in their teaching that some radio programs actually served as stimuli to creative verse. They furnished new experiences, otherwise unavailable. Such enrichment of life is necessary for creative education. These teachers give samples of poetry which they claim to have been inspired by a talk given by Henry Turner Bailey and by a dramatization of the life of La Salle.<sup>1</sup>

These two illustrations from Wisconsin and Connecticut show that attempts are actually being made to utilize radio and to justify its use. From these alone, however, not much can be concluded concerning the effectiveness of the radio in education.

Without a doubt, at the present time, the greatest good accruing from the radio is in the realm of adult education. The broadcasting companies send many programs over the air in an attempt to reach the adult. Many universities and colleges send out programs planned directly for helping him. These include the farm programs, the homemakers' hours, various lectures covering practical problems confronting men and women, mothers and fathers, political addresses, news items, discussions of current events, concerts by renowned artists, drama, broadcasting of athletic events, descriptions of adventures in science, and other types which aim directly at helping the adult population to live a more complete and full life.

Whether or not these programs are having a marked and direct influence upon men and women is hard to say. However, Dr. William John Cooper, commenting on statistics showing that illiteracy has dropped from 6 per cent to 4.3 per cent since the advent of broadcasting, said, "Experiments

<sup>1</sup> M. Harrison and D. Weir, "Radio as a Stimulus to Creative Verse in a Country School," *Progressive Education*, February 1931, pp. 131-134.

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conducted by educators have shown that unquestionably radio has been an influential factor in reducing the number of illiterates both directly and indirectly."

In summarizing this portion of the paper, it seems fair to conclude: (1) that very little has been done to show the positive value of radio in education; nothing has developed, however, to disprove its value or to show that it is ineffective. (2) People who have used the radio believe that it has something to offer. As yet they have no definite program, but are experimenting and attempting to discover how it can be put to best advantage. (3) The radio can never supplant the teacher. It can only be used as a supplement to ordinary classroom procedure. In the words of Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur, "Radio offers opportunity to deal simultaneously with every class and every schoolroom in the whole country. It offers the opportunity to have one instructor and to have a State- or nation-wide classroom. . . . All our population can go to school to radio. . . ."<sup>2</sup> (4) Leaders believe that radio is an appropriate tool for education, but as yet they are not sure how to use it.

Harold A. Lafount of the Federal Radio Commission gives the following report to the public. Questionnaires were sent to the 605 licensed commercial broadcasting stations and to the 51 licensed educational stations, those of universities and colleges and other educational institutions. Replies were received from 522 commercial stations. These stated that during the week of January 11 to 17 they were on the air 33,785 hours and 45 minutes. Of this time, 3,457 hours and 50 minutes were devoted to programs educational in character. Replies were received from 42 educational stations. These reported that during the same week they were on the air 1,027 hours, of which

286 hours and 9 minutes were strictly educational. Thus it is roughly estimated that only 10 per cent of the time "on the air" of American broadcasting stations is devoted to programs which they construe to be educational in character.

From this report, it can be seen at once that more time devoted to educational broadcasts might be beneficial. In order to relieve this situation, Senator Fess of Ohio has introduced a bill in Congress asking that "not less than 15 per cent of all broadcasting facilities, subject to control of and to allocation by Federal Radio Commission, shall be reserved for educational broadcasting exclusively."

Leaders of public thought realize that steps must be taken to make the radio more effective in influencing the lives of our people. One of the most significant movements is that fostered by Glenn Frank of Wisconsin. That State has asked the Federal Radio Commission for a strong radio station supported and manipulated by six State agencies. These are the University of Wisconsin, the Department of Agriculture and Markets, the Department of Public Instruction, the State Board of Health, the State Conservation Commission, and the State Highway Commission. The aims of the State as voiced by Mr. Frank are to give agriculture information, to give a homemaker's hour, to provide helps for adult education, to supplement instruction in the rural school, to give health information, to furnish information concerning the conservation of the State's resources, and to revive the town meeting of old New England with the entire State as its stage. Such a program is constructive and dynamic, and with the permission of the Federal Commission, the State may well be a pioneer in the effective widespread use of the radio in a commonwealth.

At the request of the Conference of Radio Educational Problems held in Chicago, Oc-

<sup>2</sup> Ray Lyman Wilbur, "The Radio in Our Republic," *School and Society*, May 30, 1931, pp. 709-713.

tober 13, 1930, William John Cooper has appointed a national Committee on Education by Radio. It is formed of outstanding men and eminent leaders in the field of education. It has outlined a five-year program looking towards the reservation of a minimum number of broadcasting channels for the exclusive use of educational institutions, and such control of them as will ensure programs of educational value. The bill introduced by Senator Fess is a direct aid to the work of this committee. The exact nature of the work to be undertaken by the committee has not been divulged. Many bulletins are in circulation and much is being done to interest the public mind in the possibilities of radio.

During the past year a few conferences dealing with problems related to radio and education were held. Of these, the most significant was the Conference on Educational Broadcasting of the World Association for Adult Education, held in Vienna, August 20, 21, and 22, 1930. The outline of the program gives some idea of the nature of the work undertaken.

1. Direct educational usage of radio: (a) combating illiteracy, (b) supplementing professional and technical education, (c) promoting health and hygiene, (d) teaching of languages, and (e) music education.

2. Indirect educational usage of radio: (a) topics of political education, (b) dissemination of news, (c) dramatic broadcasts, and (d) nonvocational talks of an informational and stimulating character.

3. Technique of broadcasting: (a) forms for presenting ideas to listeners as straight talks, discussions, debates, running comments, and showmanship.

4. Relationship between broadcaster and listener: (a) form of program, (b) relationship between eye and ear, (c) wireless discussion groups, (d) correspondence courses over radio, and (e) contacts with other educational groups.

The reports from this convention have not been made public, so we know little of its achievement. If nothing else, it demonstrated that many people recognize the problems and are now bringing forces to bear upon them in an effort to find solutions.

A conference of great possibilities for influence, although regional, was the first national conference of group leaders and student listeners held by the Central Council for Broadcast of Adult Education at the London School of Economics, January 3, 1931. The purpose of this meeting was to find the needs of groups of listeners and in so far as possible devise ways for satisfying these needs.

A third conference of interest was the meeting under the auspices of the National Advisory Committee on Education by Radio held in New York City, May 21, 22, and 23, 1931. At this conference, three distinct aspects of educational broadcasting were recognized; namely, the development of sound programs and the bringing of them to the microphone, the broadcasting of the programs, and the measurement of reception and effectiveness of instruction. Much of the future work of the committee will probably center around these three major problems.

As to the future of radio in education, little can be predicted. Committees are at work here and there attempting to set forth and demonstrate its possibilities. Research is under way, and many schools are attempting definitely to use it in connection with classroom instruction, both from without and from within the institution. Administrators are attempting to utilize it in executing routine duties. It is being given every possible chance, and those who are interested in changing methods and techniques of teaching should keep themselves well in touch with this new field during the next few years. Development will come slowly because the classroom is effectively



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controlled by tradition. Miracles do not happen overnight; they grow. So they who are interested in radio must be indulgent, must expect poor results for a time, and must expect misunderstanding and condemnation from many. Enthusiasts will have to conduct themselves wisely and sanely or they will soon be relegated to the shelf of *faddists*. The radio is new; it must be handled wisely and sanely, or it will be a bad educational tool in the hands of many.

Before radio can ever become a powerful factor in education, certain existing conditions must be dealt with frankly.

1. The Government has too little control of the air. Most of the broadcastings are commercialized, with the result that little thought and attention is given to the effect of these programs on the populace. If this country could adopt a policy similar to that of Great Britain where broadcasting is a government monopoly, supported by license fees and not by commercial interests, we would have an expedient way of controlling our broadcastings more effectively. Commercialism pays little attention to the uplifting of humanity, but it is interested in its exploitation.

This high degree of commercialism has created a feeling among educational broadcasters against the interests which receive such favors from the Federal Radio Commission. Consequently, there is little coöperation in attempting a solution to this problem.

2. To add further embarrassment to the situation, unhappy relations exist between the groups of broadcasters for two other reasons. Too frequently, if educational programs are broadcast from stations devoted primarily to commercial interests, fees are assessed for the time used. This is a heavy burden on schools none too well endowed, and the resulting feeling is not one of "good will." Then, sometimes, certain speakers are forbidden to fulfill a scheduled

engagement on the air for fear his speech might embarrass an advertiser which helps support the commercial station. No school of standing and recognition enjoys being hampered and infringed upon in carrying out what it conceives to be its educational duty. Consequently, a three-cornered situation, the educator, the commercial broadcaster, and the Federal Radio Commission, exists which practically makes constructive conference and unified effort impossible.

3. Too many of the existing programs which purport to be educational are not constructed by experts in the field of education. As a result, many of them fail to be intelligible to the age level for which they are prepared. Their language is too technical and the presentation of material is logical rather than psychological. What is needed is closer coöperation between the program makers and the listeners. Some efforts should be expended in discovering the needs of the listeners, and then an attempt made to satisfy these needs. If the need is educational, and in a sense all needs are, each broadcasting company should have on its staff one or more competent educators to give professional advice. Programs should aim to meet the needs and demands of the persons to be educated and should be constructed so the uneducated public can profit by them.

4. As programs need to be properly constructed for school use, so do teachers need to be trained in using them. Too many use the radio because it is interesting and saves them from the monotony of teaching. Teaching by radio, to be effective, must be carefully planned and the work must be well organized. Only the ambitious, the initiating, and the ingenious teacher can expect to use this new tool effectively. The average teacher, untrained and unskilled, will not see its potentialities, and will fail to profit by its use because she lacks vision and insight and training.

5. The public is not enthusiastic about radio in the schools. It has no assurance that it will not fall into the pitfalls of sectarian dogma and creeds of all natures, political and religious. It still looks upon all innovations as inroads into academic training. The radio is a little more "chocolate" added to education. The confidence of the patrons of our schools must be won; that is no easy task.

Radio is by far an unproved tool of the schoolroom. It may have possibilities, but they need to be fully tried and clearly

demonstrated before they can justify the wholesale adoption of radio and its offerings. Educational leaders and statesmen must take the initiative and make the broadcast programs worthy of the classroom. Apparently the "State has abdicated," and enthusiasts must act cautiously lest the wrath of the public falls upon them. At present, everything looks favorable for the radio; a note of caution: teachers must not be too anxious for this new development, they must prepare for it and use it with discretion.

## A CORRELATION PROJECT—THE PILGRIMS AND THE FIRST THANKSGIVING

FANNIE SEALE

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Rule Junior High School is adventuring. It has many of the characteristics that make for real junior-high-school education. The project set forth by Miss Seale of Knoxville, Tenn., is suggestive. This is the sort of thing that broadens the teacher as well as the pupil.*  
E. R. G.

For the past two years we have been experimenting with correlation and correlated projects. Judging from the interest manifested, formation of independent reading habits, love of research work, a spirit of coöperation cultivated, and a request for more such projects, we feel that the experiment was not only justified but altogether successful.

At first we worked out a major project, correlating every department in school. After this, numerous minor ones, correlating possibly two or three subjects, began to arise throughout the more closely related subjects.

The purpose of this report is to give an outline of our major project and explain how thirteen departments (history, geography, civics, English, arithmetic, art, music, physical education, shop, science, home economics, typing, library and auditorium) correlated in the formation of one large unit.

At the beginning of the school year our principal appointed a correlation committee. After studying, reviewing, and valuing vari-

ous projects, the committee chose the one on the Pilgrims and the First Thanksgiving. It appeared that this subject would furnish the most research work in the largest number of subjects taught.

After deciding definitely upon this unit, the committee met and outlined a few suggestions or pointers to be given to the head teachers of the different departments. Of course, these outlines were revised, lengthened, organized, and worked out afterwards according to the teachers' own plans. In many departments having more than one teacher, the work was easily divided by breaking the subject into well-defined phases. For instance, in English one teacher took the written work, another the oral, and the third took literature.

For the following six weeks subject lines were completely abandoned, and unification of teaching was put in force by correlating all subjects in the formation of one major unit. Naturally, during the six weeks there were frequent department meetings and a

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few extra faculty meetings. These meetings engendered among the teachers a spirit of coöperation and togetherness that could not have been attained in any other way.

After the work was completed by the children and the teachers' O.K. placed on it, it was given to the typewriting classes. In addition to their regular exercises, the typing classes did this extra work, thus enabling us to complete fully the project within our own school.

The finished material was very much more in quantity than we anticipated. We planned to combine all the work in one booklet, but that we saw was impossible. It was then decided to put all the material of the "fundamental subjects" (history, civics, geography, English, arithmetic, and science) in one booklet, and the "special subjects" (music, art, shop, home economics, and library) in another.

The art classes made illustrated covers for the books, using the same Pilgrim scene on both. These illustrations had a tendency to make the project seem more concrete.

The climax of the unit was an auditorium program presented the day before Thanksgiving. The program, composed of plays, poems, pantomimes, songs, and folk dances, was selected from the books.

Below are the aims and the outline for each subject:

*Aim*

1. To observe the relationship which exists in all subjects
2. To collect and organize material
3. To extend to pupils purposeful ideas
4. To increase creative effort
5. To develop leadership
6. To promote whole-hearted participation
7. To instill pride in work
8. To promote politeness
9. To learn to coöperate in class plans
10. To develop skill in unifying work
11. To awaken child's power of observation

12. To create a love for independent reading
13. To provide work for individual differences
14. To gain knowledge and information
15. To encourage love for correlated projects

OUTLINE FOR EACH SUBJECT  
FUNDAMENTAL SUBJECTS

*History**A. European Life*

1. Origin of the Pilgrim
  - a) Religious ideas
  - b) Personal qualities
  - c) Customs and ideas
2. Life in England
3. Life in Holland
4. Reasons for leaving Holland
5. Grant of land in America

*B. Life on the Atlantic*

1. Transportation in 1600
2. Life on the *Mayflower*
  - a) The voyage
  - b) On the coast of North America
  - c) Names of all the passengers
3. The *Mayflower Compact*

*C. Life in America*

1. Landing
  - a) Time
  - b) Place
2. First winter
  - a) Houses
  - b) Occupations
  - c) Indian trouble
  - d) Burial Hill
  - e) Return of the *Mayflower*
  - f) The first Thanksgiving Day

*English**A. Literature*

1. *The Courtship of Miles Standish*
2. Life of Henry W. Longfellow
3. *Little American History Plays for Little Americans*, by Eleanore Hubbard, p. 23-28.
4. *Stories of Colonial Children*, by M. L. Pratt Chadwick.
5. Many Thanksgiving poems
6. *Hiawatha*

*B. Oral work*

1. Dramatizing the plays
2. Memorizing poems
3. Debating
4. Telling Pilgrim stories
5. Reports from library readings



## C. Written work

1. On *The Courtship of Miles Standish*
  - a) Description of Priscilla
  - b) Description of Miles Standish
  - c) Original dialogue between Priscilla and Standish
  - d) Alden and Priscilla
2. On Longfellow
  - a) Story of life
  - b) Lineal descendants of John Alden and Priscilla
  - c) Description of Longfellow's home
3. Original plays
  - a) "The Bakers' Thanksgiving" (written by seventh grade)
  - b) "The Hobo Turkey" (written by eighth grade)
  - c) "Trials of the Pilgrims" (written by ninth grade)
  - d) Original Thanksgiving poems

## Civics

## A. Community Life in Plymouth

1. Officials
  - a) Governor
  - b) Council
  - c) Delegates
  - d) Police—Standish and his soldiers
2. Punishment of crime
  - a) Whipping post
  - b) Stocks

## B. Civic Beauty

1. Site
2. City plan
3. Houses
4. Furnishings

## C. Work of the Pilgrims

## D. Classes of Society

## E. Standard of living

## F. Factors in production

## G. Domestic life

1. Food
2. Shelter
3. Clothing

## H. Health and recreation

## Geography

## A. In America

1. Sailing of the *Mayflower*
2. Landing on rocky coast
3. Study of New England
  - a) Sail
  - b) Products
  - c) Temperature
  - d) Industries

## B. In England

1. Size
2. Surface
3. Climate
4. Contrast climates of England and New England
5. Industries

## C. In Holland

1. Industries
2. Commerce
3. Study of canals and dikes

## D. Maps (England, Holland, New England, etc.)

## Science

## A. Candle Making

1. Deer and bear candles
2. 1630 cows arrived: beef candles
3. Discovery of bayberries or wax myrtle

## B. Sanitation in Plymouth

1. No disposing of waste
2. No way of storing food
3. Crude methods of preserving
4. Neglect of dental and medical sanitation
5. Uses of oiled paper

## Arithmetic

A. Comparison of the *Mayflower* with the *Leviathan* in width, length, and depth.

## 1. Example

a) *Mayflower* was 90 feet long, 20 feet wide, and 14 feet deep; find the number of cubic feet.

b) *Leviathan* dimensions are 950 feet long 100 feet wide, 180 feet deep. Find the number of cubic feet.

## 2. Adding fractions

Then:

$$\begin{array}{r} 13 \\ - \\ 19 \\ 17 \\ - \\ 57 \\ 15 \\ - \\ 38 \\ 13 \\ - \\ 16 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1997 \\ 912 \\ \hline 1997 \\ 912 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Now:

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ - \\ 3 \\ 3 \\ - \\ 7 \\ 12 \\ - \\ 24 \\ 12 \end{array}$$

## A CORRELATION PROJECT

## SPECIAL SUBJECTS

*Shop*

- A. Building material used by the Pilgrims
  - 1. Wooden pegs
  - 2. Mud
  - 3. Logs
  - 4. Steel and lumber not used
- B. Methods of construction
  - 1. Rough axes
  - 2. Stones
  - 3. Pegs
- C. Heating devices
  - 1. Fire places
  - 2. Sun
  - 3. Stoves, ovens, and furnaces not known
- D. Plumbing
  - 1. Not known till 1880
  - 2. Water carried in wooden pails
- E. Indian weapons
  - 1. Bows and arrows
  - 2. Battle axes
  - 3. Tomahawks
- F. Indian pottery

*Home Economics**Sewing*

- A. Place of the spinning wheel
- B. Use of the sewing bird
- C. Dress of the Indians
- D. Dress of the Pilgrims  
(Clothes pins dressed as Indians and Puritans)

*Cooking*

- A. Description of a Colonial kitchen
- B. Utensils
  - 1. Iron kettle
  - 2. Pewter plate
- C. Menu of the Pilgrim Thanksgiving dinner
- D. Contrast with modern Thanksgiving menu
- E. Thanksgiving recipes
  - 1. Roasted turkey
  - 2. Cranberry jelly
  - 3. Mince pie
  - 4. Pumpkin pie
  - 5. Thanksgiving pudding

*Music*

- A. Pilgrims' distrust of music
- B. *The Bay Psalm Book*
- C. Contrast of instruments used then and now
- D. Modern Thanksgiving Cantatas for children
  - 1. *Childhood of Hiawatha*
  - 2. *Pocahontas*
  - 3. *The Harvest*

## E. Action songs (for intermediate grades)

- 1. *Chorus from the Kitchen*
- 2. *An Indian Lullaby*
- 3. Colonial carols
- 4. A group of Indian songs
- 5. *Our Pilgrim Fathers* (Tune, *Old Oaken Bucket*)  
(Address and price of above songs will be furnished on request)

*Physical Education*

- A. Games and amusements of the Pilgrims
- B. Health
- C. Folk dances taught
  - 1. An Indian dance
  - 2. Dutch couples
  - 3. Hansel and Gretel
 First two dances used in ninth-grade play, "The Trials of the Pilgrims."

*Library*

- A. Research work done in library room
- B. Comparison of modern-day books with books of the Pilgrim age
- C. Bibliography of the Pilgrims  
(These references found by the children in our library include books, magazines, encyclopedia, and poems. This will be furnished any teacher upon request.)

*Art*

- A. Covers for two books (Pilgrim scene on each)
- B. Division sheets (introducing each department)
  - 1. For instance:
    - History—Drawing of the Plymouth Rock
    - Geography—Drawing of ship, *Mayflower*
    - Home economics—Spinning wheel
- C. List of drawings for each subject
  - Shop
    - 1. Wooden churn
    - 2. Wooden cradle
    - 3. Colonial fireplace
    - 4. Crude plow
    - 5. Brass andirons
    - 6. Bows and arrows
    - 7. Hatchet
    - 8. Indian pottery
  - Home Economics
    - 1. Spinning wheel
    - 2. A sewing bird
    - 3. Costumes of Indians
  - D. Perry Pictures
    - 1. *Priscilla*
    - 2. Puritans going to church

3. Miles Standish
4. Spinning wheel
5. Miles Standish and his soldiers
6. Longfellow
7. Longfellow's home—Craigie House  
(These pictures obtained from Perry Picture Company)

*Typing*

The material was typed by the typing classes in Rule Junior High School.

*Auditorium*

A Thanksgiving program, including plays, songs, dialogues, pantomimes, and poems selected from the project, was given to the public.

## STENOGRAPHIC REPORT OF A JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL SOCIAL-SCIENCE CLASS

HELEN HALTER

*EDITOR'S NOTE: The editors believe that this report will be of interest to classroom teachers. It was obtained stenographically from the classroom under the direction of Miss Helen Halter who is assistant professor of education and supervisor of social studies at New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York.*

L. B.

"Unit procedure," involving "individualization" in the pupils' learning of facts and "socialization" in a culminating problem discussion, is a much quoted methodology. A stenographic report of its use by a student teacher with a seventh-grade social-science class is presented as a basis for criticism of this procedure in practice.

The seventh-grade class was an "A" or bright section of fifteen pupils in Milne Junior-Senior High School, the training school of the New York State College for Teachers. The student teacher<sup>1</sup> was a senior in the college and had taught the class for the semester from February to June. The stenographic report was made in early June. The supervisor was not present in the class when the report was made and had taught the class herself for no more than five periods during the semester, none of them after the beginning of April.

Previous to the day of socialized discussion which was stenographically reported, the pupils had worked for about three periods individually on the unit problem, "Why is South America playing an increasingly important rôle in world affairs?" In each

pupil's hands was a mimeographed sheet presenting the minimum assignment and the optional creative activities. The minimum work which all were required to complete before the day scheduled for discussion included, in this instance, reading of certain chapters in the textbook,<sup>2</sup> completing the accompanying workbook problems, and the construction of an inclusive chart. After the required work was satisfactorily completed, and before a pupil might begin any of the twenty or so suggested optional activities or any others which he might initiate after securing the teacher's approval, he was required to take a mastery test covering all the facts and concepts about South America which had been agreed upon as basal information. This test was taken individually whenever the student, thinking he was ready for it, requested it from the teacher. If his score upon the test was not practically perfect, he repeated it after further guided study.

This individualization of informational learning influenced in two ways the class discussion reported below. First, because the pupils had taken and passed a mastery test,

<sup>1</sup> Miss Margaret Furlong, at present teacher of junior-high-school social science in Waterford, New York.

<sup>2</sup> Harold Rugg, *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1930).



## STENOGRAPHIC REPORT OF A SOCIAL SCIENCE CLASS

the teacher felt no compulsion to make the class discussion a factual recitation. She was sure that the students had learned all the facts that she wished them to know and was therefore ready to plan a discussion on unsettled problems. Second, the pupils were able to discuss the problem questions with a certain degree of intelligence because they already had the necessary factual information on which to base opinions about the debatable questions.

## STENOGRAPHIC REPORT OF A SEVENTH-GRADE SOCIAL-SCIENCE CLASS

*Teacher* Everybody in their seats.

*Ruth* Do you want our notebooks or can we do what we want with them?

*Teacher* Yes.

*Teacher* Fred. (Fred who is in charge of the current news of the day proceeds to the board and the discussion begins. Hands are raised.)

*Fred* William Ford.

*William Ford* (reading from the paper) Sweden in bitter conflict with Reds for timber trade. (Fred writes this on the board.)

*Emilie* (reading from the paper) Germany asks reduction on World War debt. My mother said probably they would want the United States to reduce the debt, too.

*Billy F.* Germany, British pledge mutual aid during crisis. Germany says that she is at the end of her resources.

*Leo* Norfolk swept by great fire loses millions.

*Fred* What do they mean?

*Leo* The city of Norfolk was on fire and they lost a lot of money from the fire.

*Pupil* Norfolk, Connecticut.

*Fred* Virginia.

*William Nolan* Mussolini tells the Pope where he gets off and that he would have to stay out of politics or he would tell him where he belongs.

*Fred* How do you spell Mussolini?

*Carl* Chicago is very near bankruptcy. Some of the taxpayers refuse to pay. I think the new mayor is in a tough place.

*Pupil* About this coming German question, the debts cannot be paid. And also about Chicago—Chicago is near bankruptcy. That new mayor is desperate. And also Mussolini refuses to see the papal ambassador. I don't think the cause is so much whether the pope will enter politics or not.

*Fred* That is not so important.

*Barbara* (reading) United States to seize and

sell Al Capone property to secure payment of \$215,183 in income taxes due the Government.

*Fred* What does that mean?

*Barbara* That they are going to sell his property for that figure. Sing Sing increases guard population.

*Leo* Any one that wants an eight-ton limousine bullet-proof car can get one; they are going to sell one of Capone's. If they want an arm chair with a steel back guaranteed to stop machine-gun bullets they can get one, too.

*Billy F.* War in China July 1 or 4. Says there is going to be war.

*Fred* Who says it?

*Billy* Name not here.

*Teacher* That was very fine, Fred, and done well. The rest of the class responded nicely. (Fred goes to his seat.)

*Teacher* Who wants to try tomorrow? Ruth. Now I want you to explain some of the cartoons you gave in as projects. (Teacher passes out cartoons to the class.)

*Carl* (holding up his cartoon before the class.) Mine is the Panama Canal.

*Billy F.* Isn't Costa Rica an island?

*Teacher* No.

*Carl* (continuing) This is a map of Argentina, one of the Latin American countries. It is of Argentina's advertising. Says it is the land of *vaqueros* which means cowboys. Here there are rodeos where they gathered all the cattle.

*Robert M.* Do you know what they use for lassos down there? Instead of the regular ones they use out West here they have to . . .

*Ruth* (holding up cartoons) This is the Latin American revolutions. The house is Latin America and the man revolution. He wants to get in and knocks at the door. They don't want him to get in. Any one any questions?

*Teacher* Has any one work that they would like to show and explain?

*John* (holding up cartoons) These are cartoons on revolutions. One shows the states of Brazil now in revolution. Then this one over here shows all South America in revolutions. Then down here it shows the United States standing and it shows Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama violating and having revolutions. This one puts Uncle Sam up in the air and on these cartoons around here have a revolution. This one down on the left shows Uncle Sam reading the paper.

*Billy* This one is the United States and Uncle Sam and here is Europe. Off here Uncle Sam says you are not coming in here to Europe, and South America is down here smiling. Here is a

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map of Brazil showing a little boy with pimples. It is the measles. Look out it is catching. This means revolutions are. Any questions?

*Leo* (holding up one) This is South America saying to Uncle Sam "How do you do." And Uncle Sam saying it back to South America.

*Teacher* Very good. That is all we have time for today.

*Teacher* Here is a question. I want you to think about it and then raise your hand. Do you think South America possesses the resources to become a leading industrial nation?

*Doris* I think South America has enough resources to become an industrial nation. She has lots of coal and exports they ask for. She has many ports on the west.

*William Nolan* I don't think South America has many resources. Brazil has most of the coal in South America, and that is not enough to make her an industrial nation.

*Ruth* They have water power that they are now developing which will help make them an industrial nation.

*Jane* They have gold and silver and have tin also. They have not much iron. But the important thing they do have is coal in Brazil. I don't think they are an industrial nation now and the main trouble is that they will use up all their natural resources before they become an industrial nation.

*Billy* It hasn't enough coal and iron to become industrial. Because they have natural resources is not enough. They must have other things. It hasn't enough iron. All that it has got is gold, silver, and tin. It hasn't got enough iron or coal, but it has a lot of water for water power.

*Barbara* Billy said there is not much coal in South America but this book says there is 20 billion tons. Mines of coal are 30 miles long. During the World War South America sent coal over to Europe.

*John* The coal mines are their big natural resources but you can never tell about the climate in South America.

*Della* I thought that there was a lot of iron in South America. There is iron in Brazil now.

*Teacher* Doris, summarize.

*Doris* I want to say something else.

*Teacher* Yes.

*Doris* What about Great Britain and other countries, are they not industrial?

*Pupil* Yes, but they have enough coal and lots of exports. They have bad points also. They have not any iron but they have not any natural barriers. They have no jungles and deserts.

*Teacher* Let's take a vote on this. How many

think it possible for South America to become an industrial nation?

*William* I say that South America has not enough resources.

*Emilie* They did trade some of their rubber and they have rubber that they could trade. They trade rubber and coffee for other things. They have lots of those to trade for the reason that the climate is good to raise coffee and rubber. Climate does not always hinder your industrial nation.

*William Ford* They have too many natural barriers as deserts and jungles.

*Jane* This book contradicts itself. Here it says South America has not so much coal.

*Barbara* Is that in the book? So was what I read.

*Leo* The principal product of southern Chile is coal. This is the best coal-producing country in South America. South America sent coal to Europe during the World War.

*William Nolan* Twenty billion tons of coal is not very much. Also because of the size of Brazil much coal is needed.

*Ruth* Besides that Chile has copper. South America is next to America in producing copper.

*Teacher* Let's take another vote.

*Teacher* That is your own privilege. You can think that as long as you have facts to back it.

*Teacher* Here is another question to think about. How would the United States suffer if trade were cut off with South America?

*Carl* The American people would not have coffee for breakfast and there would not be so many accidents because drivers would drive more carefully on the roads because they would have to use tin tires.

*Robert Wilcox* I think it would be hard for the United States because industrial countries can get along better if it trades more. The more trade an industrial country has the better it is for it. About those tires most people would have to ride on rims.

*Della* They are exporting much of their rubber now.

*William Nolan* The rubber produced in Brazil is not the only rubber we can get.

*Ruth* Our standard of living would be lowered.

*Teacher* Why?

*Ruth* We would not have coffee to drink and we would not have the conveniences we have now in using the Panama Canal to trade with South America.

*Teacher* The question before you is would the United States suffer and how if trade were cut off with South America.

## STENOGRAPHIC REPORT OF A SOCIAL SCIENCE CLASS

*Billy* Edison is working on rubber now to grow in this climate. Maybe he will find something.

*William Ford* If you cut off trade with the United States, South America would trade with Russia, and Russia has taken all the trade from Europe now.

*Carl* I want to go back to the United States. New York would surely be some quiet city if we rode around on tin rims.

*Leo* I don't know what hit me but I have been thinking. When Russia takes all this trade from Europe and America, Russia will be the main trade route.

*Teacher* Will this be so?

*Della* I don't think so. Russia has no big seaports and the Ural mountains are between Europe and Asia and that cuts it off from Asia.

(Leo goes to the front of the room and reads from a card the following statement.)

*Leo* Big business men have very greatly influenced the history of Latin America. I don't get this.

*Teacher* Anybody help Leo out?

*Billy* I think that South America lacks capital and big business men.

*Leo* If you call Roosevelt a big business man he influenced Latin America by making the Panama Canal.

*Ruth* Yes, the Panama Canal was a very great thing. The trade route was shortened between the United States and Latin America.

*Emilie* When the big business men completed the Panama canal it helped Latin America. Chile was so far from other countries it was hard for her to trade with the rest of the world.

*Billy* It was hard to trade with Europe for some of the South American countries because the trade route was so long.

*Leo* Then some of you people have no ideas. I said that in the beginning.

*Fred* By opening the Panama Canal it really helped Chile.

*John* President Monroe who issued the Monroe Doctrine did much to help South America.

*Leo* Do you call President Monroe a big business man?

*Billy Ford* Yes.

*Billy F.* The President is a big business man in the war and every time the President cuts up there is a revolution.

*Barbara* I don't think the big business men did any good.

*Jane* I think they did a lot of good opening the Panama Canal. This shorter route helped.

*Bobby W.* The Panama Canal was a good thing because the ships used to get wrecked going around the southern end of South America on the straits. This caused a lot of damage to the ships and much money to have them fixed. Then they had to pay more money for the goods that came in the ships.

*William Ford* I don't see how that is going to help things much because if goods are cheap, wages are cheap, and if goods are high, wages are high. That is the same as in the United States.

*Teacher* Here is another question. (Leo goes to his seat.) In what way does South America resemble the United States?

*Bobby* They started to put up their own government as did the United States. Of course the United States had the lead because it was under control of Great Britain first and when she broke from Great Britain she had had some training.

*Della* Both countries have resources to make them industrial.

*Leo* They resemble the United States because the United States has many different kinds of people also. There are English, Germans, French, Irish, Italians, Japanese, Chinese, Slavs, Scotch, and others.

*William Ford* In South America they have their own special sports some of which are revolutions.

*Teacher* Is South America agricultural or industrial?

*Ruth* About half and half. It is agricultural because it still has rubber growing and coffee, and it mines coal and other natural resources to make it industrial.

*Teacher* Emilie, come to the board and call on people and put on the board what they say.

*William Nolan* The people who went there first their only occupation was agriculture.

*Billy F.* It is three-fourths agricultural and one-fourth industrial. In Chile it has nitrate which they mine and export to the other countries.

*William* In the southern part of South America in Argentina there are large plains and pampas where they grow many things and raise cattle. The climate is the reason for their growing grains and raising cattle. Then they have large rubber and coffee plantations.

*John* I think they are industrial because they have so many revolutions and they have to manufacture all their weapons for the revolutions and they do trade with other nations.

*Leo* In the Middle Ages they did not have factories and were not industrial and they had



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much warfare. It took them two or three days to make the sword then.

*Teacher* The work was done nicely today. The assignment for tomorrow is to read chapter 25, contrast between agricultural and industrial countries, pages 583-584. In Workbook, problem 25, page 90, and of problem 25 give 2 a, b, c. Map on page 95.

*Teacher* Emilie, please read the assignment.

*Emilie* Read chapter 25; contrast between agricultural and industrial countries pages 583-584. In Workbook, problem 25, page 90, 2 a, b, c.

*Teacher* The rest of the period you can work on your work. Bell rings.

TABLE SHOWING PUPIL PARTICIPATION  
(Voluntary participation by every one)

Name	Number of times each pupil spoke	Number of lines spoken by each
Fred	7	5
William F.	7	20
Emilie	4	17
Billy F.	9	27½
Leo	11	31½
William N.	5	13
Carl	5	15
Barbara	5	12½
Robert M.*	1	3
Ruth	8	20½
John	4	18
Doris	3	6
Jane	3	9½
Della	4	8
Robert W. (Bobby)	2	16½
Teacher	24	38½

(Five of ½ lines  
spoken by the  
teacher were one  
word each)

It may be in order on the basis of the content of this class discussion to justify its designation as a "social-science" lesson. Although the discussion was primarily geographical in nature, the consideration of the

\* Stenographer had difficulty understanding Robert. She reported he spoke at other times.

Monroe Doctrine and the Panama Canal and the answers to the question "In what way does South America resemble the United States?" indicated historical elements. The feeling of opposition and humorous superiority to the revolutionary character of South American governments might be considered a part of civic training, and the principle brought out by a pupil that "when goods are cheap, wages are cheap" was perhaps elementary economics. To a degree, the elements of social science may be said to have been present.

Evidences of the socialization in this lesson may be summarized in more detail:

1. The four questions presented to the class were problematic rather than factual.
2. The response to the questions presented to the class was teacher-pupil-pupil-pupil-pupil and not teacher-pupil, teacher-pupil.
3. The teacher's questions and comments were few.
4. A pupil chairman conducted part of the discussion.
5. Pupils answered each other's questions and checked each other's mistakes.
6. Pupils used the textbook as a reference basis for discussion, not hesitating to criticize it upon occasion.
7. The existence of an obvious freedom of expression seems to indicate a confidence on the part of the pupils in their conduct of the class.

There are, of course, weaknesses in the lesson reported. It is presented not in any sense as a model, but as an example of the use which can be made of unit procedure under favorable conditions in the hands of a beginning teacher.

## HISTORY OF STUDENT TUTORING AT WEST HIGH SCHOOL, AKRON, OHIO

H. M. HORST

*EDITOR'S NOTE: H. M. Horst describes an unusual procedure carried on through the organization of superior pupils for the benefit of those who need assistance in adjusting themselves to study. In view of the emphasis now being placed on pupil participation in the life of the high school, Mr. Horst's article seems to us to be highly significant.*

A. D. W.

The West High School of Akron, Ohio, is organized on the four-year plan. It draws most of its students from one of the chief residential districts of the city, although a large number come from a semiforeign section. The instruction is organized on the departmental plan and has been conducted under a liberal school administration which gives the teachers opportunity for using their initiative in motivating and carrying on their work. The effort of the department of social science towards socializing the school gives evidence of what students are willing to do for the good of the school and their fellow students, when confidence is extended by school authorities to the teachers and by them in turn to the students.

In 1923 the upper-grade classes in social science were organized in committees for participation in school responsibilities. One of these committees operated as senior adviser to such students as were in need of counsel. The committee of advisers was composed of from three to five of the most reliable and influential boys and girls of the upper grades. They were chosen by the teachers of the social-science classes with the advice and consent of the principal and other members of the faculty. This committee was the result of a conviction that the students should have an opportunity to discuss their problems with some one more nearly their equal than either a school administrator or a teacher can ever be.

Each student adviser had a definite time and place to meet those in need. Helping others thus became the chief business at that particular time and was not looked upon as

a mere incident in an overcrowded program. Moreover, having the advantage of common experiences with the one whom he was helping, the student adviser was likely to get the student's point of view and to understand his difficulties. Pupils often reveal to each other facts and conditions that they would never tell their teachers.

All pupils in need of advice of any kind were urged to consult a member of the committee. The teachers reported the names of those who seemed discouraged, friendless, or unable to adjust themselves. With the coöperation of the principal, the dean of girls, and the home visitor, the committee was able to untangle home difficulties, adjust relations between students, assist pupils in finding themselves, and aid new students in their strange environment. The results were better than could have been expected. The principal's office was relieved of much detail work, home relations were improved, and the committee members were given valuable experience in human engineering.

Student tutors were a by-product and direct outgrowth of the work of student advisers. It was found out by one adviser that the girl in whom she was interested was very much in need of help in her physical geography. Another girl, a senior, at once offered her services. The good news spread rapidly: "Now the weaker students may have regular and systematic help from the better students." A "felt need" now made one more committee necessary. This, in turn, began to function under the direction of a faculty adviser. A definite plan of procedure was adopted.

At the beginning of each semester the faculty adviser (usually with the aid of a student assistant) made a survey of the better students in the upper grades and asked teachers, department advisers, and the honor-society committee to recommend as tutors those who they felt were qualified to give help in their respective subjects. He then visited the students recommended and if possible secured their coöperation. He inspected their personal schedules, listed all their open periods and the rooms where they studied at those periods. Each period of the day was then listed with all the students available for tutoring at that time. The list thus compiled greatly facilitated the selection of tutors when the need arose. The better students thus gave their help, with no hope of reward, except the realization that aiding others helped them to master the subject matter for themselves and the consciousness of having done something worth while for others.

About the close of the first month or near the close of the first grading period of each semester, teachers recommended to the department of student tutors students who were in need of special help, and who they thought were worthy of it. These requests were made by teachers on blanks prepared especially for the purpose. Each pupil signed a personal contract, pledging a definite amount of time devoted to the study of the lesson each day. This contract was also signed by a parent of the pupil, by the faculty manager of the organization, and by the teacher of the subject in which help was given.

For the period of time covered by this report these students in need of help were assigned with their tutors to a special room. This room was an enclosed end of a corridor between two recitation rooms. No teachers were assigned to the room. Each period of the day a senior student was assigned there who had complete charge and was held re-

sponsible for all that took place during his period of control. He was designated as a tutor supervisor and worked under definite instructions. At the close of the semester the supervisor made a complete report of attendance and work done by all who were assigned to that room during his period of supervision. This procedure naturally had its disadvantages, but while a regular teacher was conducting a class on each side of the "special help room" no great difficulty was experienced in carrying on the work.

In judging the efficiency of this work by the results achieved, it must be kept in mind that student tutoring evolved out of a "felt need." The poorer students were in need of help and the committees of the social-science classes felt the urge to supply it. In this laboratory of social science, differences in mental attainments and social characteristics are ignored. Wealth and social standing are not recognized. Those that have are willing to share with those that have not. Very often the poor are asked to help the rich.

We would gladly rest the merits of this work with social values, believing that good must result from the mingling of students of different races, abilities, and social standing under a limited amount of supervision and in pursuit of a serious purpose. But an age which emphasizes economic advantages and efficiency seems to demand evidences of scholastic gains on the part of those receiving help and better work on their part after help is withdrawn. To this end we have made a study of marks received by these students during and after the special help period.

In this connection it does not always seem necessary to consider the work of a tutor a failure simply because the student receiving help fails to "pass" at the close of the semester. These students are recommended by their teachers for special help because they are at or near the margin of failure. If these failing students are now saved to the study



## STUDENT TUTORING

of Latin, are enabled to pursue the course they have chosen to pursue, continue to do good work after help is withdrawn, and are saved from the ignominy of final failure, we still consider the work of the tutor of some value even though the student receiving help may "fail" at the close of the period of help.

In making this report, we have arbitrarily eliminated students who had fewer than ten lessons of help, as well as those whose failure to make progress was due to their own lack of effort or to their failing to cooperate in the work. With this understanding we may now consider the following as some of the results of this work.

Of the 160 students receiving help in Latin alone within the first nine semesters of organized student help, 146 received sufficient benefits to be saved eventually to the study of Latin.

Of the remaining 14 who received no visible benefits 3 withdrew from school; 8 failed, reviewed the same Latin, and failed again; 3 failed and dropped Latin from their course.

It would seem, however, that even these may be said to have received some benefit from the tutors' efforts, as it proved, without repeating the same Latin semester after semester, that Latin was not for them, induced them to select other lines of work, and thus "get set" more quickly than they otherwise would have done.

Table 1 gives in intervals of five the in-

TABLE I

*Increase in Latin Marks of Students Given Special Help*

Number of Students	Per Cent Increase
47 .....	1 to 5
32 .....	6 to 10
32 .....	11 to 15
4 .....	16 to 20
3 .....	21 to 25
3 .....	26 to 30
1 .....	36 to 40

crease in Latin marks made by these students during their periods of special help.

The average initial mark of these 160 pupils at the beginning of special help was 69. The average of the first-semester marks at the close of help, just before examinations, was 76.2. One's suspicion is naturally aroused that this average increase of 7.2 per cent during the special help period represents the effort on the part of those giving the help rather than those receiving it, and that the following semester would prove the fallacy of student tutoring when, after help is withdrawn, the marks of those students would begin to drop again.

Thirty-three students of beginning Latin were given help during the first five semesters of our organization. These students' marks for the two semesters following special help were studied in order to find out how their marks were affected by the withdrawal of special help.

The results show the following progress made:

Average initial mark when help began.....	70.5
Average mark at close of help before examination .....	75.5
Average second-semester mark before examination .....	78.4
Average third-semester mark, first mark given pupil .....	79.5

The tabulation below gives a similar record of progress made by twenty-eight students receiving help in the last half of the freshman year.

Average initial mark when special help began..	70.4
Average mark at close of help, before examination .....	76.8
Average second-semester mark before examination .....	77.3
Average third-semester mark, first mark given pupil .....	76.4

The table on page 248 is a comparison of the above two tables.

## JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

	First Semester (Per Cent)	Second Semester (Per Cent)
Average initial mark when help began..	70.5	70.4
Average mark at close of help before ex- amination .....	75.5	76.8
Average second-se- mester mark before examination .....	78.4	77.3
Average third-seme- ster mark, first mark given pupil.....	79.5	76.4

We find here that help given in second-semester Latin does not carry over to the study of third- and fourth-semester Latin quite as well as the help given in first-semester Latin seems to carry over to the study of Latin in the second semester. It seems natural that this should be so since memory, drill, and the mechanics of Latin are emphasized in both the first and second semesters; while help given in the second semester is followed by more content study in later semesters.

How much real help one student can give another has long been a mooted question. Schools have often discouraged homework because of the tendency of students to receive help from parents and other members of the family not trained in the technique of teaching. So far as we know no effort has ever been made for a scientific approach to the subject. Nor do we claim that this discussion with its accompanying figures is worthy of this claim.

The marks used in making these comparisons represent the basis on which students are universally promoted and to the same extent they may be considered as having value in this discussion. Moreover, they are the cumulative experience of several years, scattered over parts of three different school administrations, and represent the combined judgment of many teachers.

Considering sixty dollars as the cost of tuition per student in high school for one

year, the economic advantage to the community in reducing the number of failures becomes very evident. Again, if there is even partial truth in the traditional statement that each day in high school is worth five dollars to the student that graduates, it is easy to figure the economic gain of student tutoring to the one receiving it.

Moreover, this gain is produced without loss to any one. Of the tutors answering our questionnaire, all but one said that helping others aided them in the preparation of their own lessons. Being under student control, this organization, if properly conducted, takes care of itself without detracting materially from the daily duties of any teacher. The administrative office is relieved of many details and parents are glad to know that students are receiving that individual attention which teachers are often unable to give.

Then too, student help aids in solving a perplexing problem of all high schools, that of utilizing the excessive energies of our stronger students—the honor society. Let them help themselves by helping others. They can make the learning process more desirable on the part of the learner and teaching more effective on the part of the teacher.

It does not seem necessary to compare these student teachers without professional training with the trained teachers whom they are trying to aid. The good they may do is done in spite of a lack of the training and maturity of the regular teachers. Perhaps in some cases their immaturity will enable them to get the viewpoint of the one whom they are helping all the more quickly. Perhaps their limited knowledge of subject matter may make them more appreciative of his difficulties. Surely the individual instruction, the lack of the usual classroom hurry, the opportunity to fit instruction to the student's particular needs, and the intimacy resulting from social intercourse aside from the lesson

## STUDENT TUTORING

at hand gives the student teacher a great advantage over the teacher of regular class-work. Again, both the tutor and his pupil are more likely to realize and appreciate the teacher's difficulty in mass education.

The teachers of the pupils included in this report agree that there is a gradual increase in effort as the pupils continue receiving help and that their effort recedes slightly when help is withdrawn. This apparent parallelism between variation in effort and variation in Latin marks seems sufficient reason in itself for the pupil's doing better classroom work while receiving help.

Student tutoring has been carried on under the administration of two different principals, each of whom has made a distinct statement rating the value of this work in comparison with the other school activities.

The principal under whom this work began, in comparing student tutoring with eight other activities of the social-science department rates it first in its influence on pupils, first in its influence on the community, first in economy of school funds and time, and first in being most pedagogically sound. In his opinion it must yield first place to the committee of student advisers, in which the organization of student tutors had its origin, and with which it is still definitely associated, in being productive of the most lasting good.<sup>1</sup> The present principal in comparing student tutoring with twenty-three other extracurricular activities rates this work as second in the developing of leadership, giving first place to the student council.

<sup>1</sup> See *School Review*, May, 1924, p. 343, for a discussion of the activities of student advisers.

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## OTHERS SAY

EDITED BY FLOYD E. HARSHMAN

**Progressive Education Association.**—The Twelfth Annual Conference of the Progressive Education Association will be held in Baltimore, Maryland, February 18-20, 1932, with the Emerson Hotel as headquarters. Among the speakers so far engaged are such leaders as Dr. George S. Counts, Dr. Hughes Mearns, Dr. Fannie Dunn, Marion E. Miller, Dr. Lois Hayden Meek, Dr. Thomas Alexander, Ralph M. Pearson, and others. All sessions will relate to the present status of education in the problem of social reconstruction.

As before, the chief feature of the conference will be a series of group discussions, with leaders, exhibits of school materials, and well-planned programs. New topics have been added.

The conference promises a large attendance because of many new features and the opportunity to attend sessions of the National Education Association in Washington the week following, and the events of the Washington Bi-Centennial. Applications for hotel reservations should be made direct to the Emerson Hotel, Baltimore, Maryland, and for tickets to the conference, copies of the program, and reduced railroad fare certificates, to Progressive Education, 716 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

**Which Shall We Examine?**—The *Journal of Education* for October 26, 1930, calls attention to the fact that a Council of School Superintendents in New York State has gone on record as favoring the dismissal from school of pupils fourteen years of age and older who show, on examination, that they are unfitted to satisfactorily carry out the school program. Their contention is that such pupils, if physically sound, are of greater benefit to industry when they show no aptitude for education.

All of this raises a few questions. What shall be the criteria for judging aptitudes in education? Can industry, in these days, absorb these dismissed fourteen-year-olds? Why not an examination of the offerings of the school to see why the pupils show little or no aptitude for, or interest in, them?

As opposed to this move, President William Green, American Federation of Labor, urges compliance with the request that boys and girls be kept in school to aid the present relief plans of the President's Commission.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *The American Teacher*, November 1931.

**Appointment of Specialist in Educational Tests and Measurements Announced.**—Ray Lyman Wilbur, Secretary of the Interior, has announced the appointment of Dr. David Segel, Long Beach, California, to the position of specialist in educational tests and measurements in the Federal Office of Education research and investigation division. Creation of such a position was authorized by the last Congress.

Dr. Segel, who was born in Kansas, received his A.B. degree from the University of California, his A.M. degree from Teachers College, Columbia University, and his Ph.D. degree from Stanford University. He taught school in McPherson, Kansas; New Castle High School, New Castle, Ohio; County High School, Holyoke, Colorado; Westside Union High School, Tracy, California; Clovis Union High School, Clovis, California; and for the past seven years has been in the research department of Long Beach City Schools, Long Beach, California.

It will be the duty of the new education specialist to conduct studies concerned with the construction and evaluation of tests and measures of pupil progress, efficiency of teaching, and adequacy of the school program; to administer measurement programs, interpret results, make administrative adjustments and curriculum changes based on results of testing programs, and to cooperate with bureaus of research in city school systems, other research agencies, and individuals in making studies in this field. Dr. Segel will also organize and conduct an information service for school officials and others interested in problems of tests and measurements; advise and assist school officials in surveys or studies of school systems, and assist in such surveys conducted by the Office of Education.

**Help for College Students.**—A bulletin of interest to secondary-school advisers and others interested in assisting worthy pupils who wish to go to college has been sent out from the President's Organization on Unemployment Relief. This bulletin lists twenty general organizations which stand ready to help worth-while young men and women who wish higher education. The bulletin may be had by requesting it of the organization in Washington.

**Enrichment Through a Longer School Day.**—Of 800 cities in the United States, 84 have lengthened the elementary-school day, 102 have length-

## OTHERS SAY

ened the junior-high-school day, and 122 the senior-high-school day. The object is that the elementary children will have more time for play, physical training, and handwork, and high-school students will have more time for study and extra-curricular activities.<sup>2</sup>

*Band and Orchestra Instruction via Radio.*—Teaching more than 3,800 boys and girls to play band and orchestra instruments is the radio's newest achievement. The pupils learned to play all major instruments except the drums in six half-hour broadcast lessons, as reported by Joseph E. Maddy, University of Michigan music professor. The course of instruction was offered by the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and the University of Michigan over Station WJR after a school superintendent inquired about the possibility of using radio to direct the playing of band and orchestra instruments in rural communities which could not afford to engage a band teacher.<sup>3</sup>

*A Call To Study Rural Secondary Education.*—A recent report from the United States Office of Education calls attention to the fact that the small rural high school is failing to keep pace with the larger city institution in its offerings to pupils. The rural school is impeding educational progress.

The bulletin calls for a study of the problem looking towards consolidation of schools with the attendant possibility of employing more competent and skilful teachers.

<sup>2</sup> *School Executives Magazine*, November 1931.

<sup>3</sup> *The High School*, November 1931.

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## BOOK REVIEWS

*American High Schools and Vocational Schools in 1960*, by DAVID SNEDDEN. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, 122 pages.

During the last thirty years the American secondary school has made an astounding growth in attendance, financial support, and general popularity. In spite of this fact, keen dissatisfaction with both the aims and achievements of this institution is becoming increasingly common, especially among those who think critically about educational values. In a brief volume entitled *American High School and Vocational Schools in 1960*, Professor David Snedden has, with his characteristic vigor, given us his ideas of what this institution should be and do. Writing in the guise of a foreign commission studying the American system of secondary education in the year 1960, he forecasts the changes which he believes will have occurred in the aims, the organization, the administration and the methods of education on that level.

The book is divided into seventeen chapters which are written in the style of report summaries. Chapters I to VIII inclusive contain descriptions of the curriculum organization, the offerings designed to ensure physical well-being, the cultural offerings, and the socializing educations which are provided. Chapter IX records the final disposal of "mental discipline" as a controlling purpose in American high-school education. In Chapters X to XIII, inclusive, the author discusses what he designates as "key principles" of methods, of educative purpose, and of integration. The last three chapters deal with vocational education.

The book is neither timid in its proposals nor vague in its conclusion and should stimulate discussion and study which are badly needed. If, as many critics believe, American secondary education is "all dressed up—with no place to go" it is high time that an intelligent effort be made to reach an agreement regarding its destination.

John Rufi

*The Popular Commencement Book*, by EFFA E. PRESTON. Chicago: T. S. Denison Co., 1931, 434 pages.

What should be the nature of a high-school graduation program? Should it be a standardized, conventional series of activities including such items as a valedictory, an ivy oration, and a class



## BOOK REVIEWS

history? Or should it be a purposeful and unified development of the preceding experiences of the graduating students and of the school as a whole? The author of this very suggestive and comprehensive collection of typical commencement and class-day activities has contributed valuable material for the use of graduating classes who wish to follow the usual practice of valedictory, salutatory, class poem, etc. There are examples of serious addresses, of class plays, of commencement specialities, and of exercises in a lighter vein. This book should be useful to class advisers and principals who are in need of suggestions for the typical graduation program.

A. D. W.

*How to Interview*, by WALTER VAN DYKE BINGHAM and BRUCE VICTOR MOORE.  
New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931.  
xiv + 320 pages.

The interview—the conversation with a purpose—is relied upon in a great variety of situations and there has been a need for an inquiry into this means of fact finding. This volume, addressed to interviewers and also to those who utilize the information which interviewers gather, describes the problems confronting the interviewer, and suggests solutions for immediate use. It is one of a series of Business Books and is written largely from the standpoint of industrial personnel work, but the information and suggestions contained may be translated with profit into the field of the educator and will be of much help to administrators and others concerned with vocational guidance.

W. A. G.

*A History of the United States*, by EPHRAIM DOUGLASS ADAMS and JOHN C. ALMACK. New York: Harper Brothers, 1931, xvi + 802 pages.

The reviewer of recent texts in the history of the United States is faced at the outset with the problem of discovering the reasons for the appearance of each new book that comes to his desk. He seeks to answer the question, Is it or is it not "just another" text in American history? If he discovers qualities that entitle it to claims of superiority over other texts in its field, his task becomes a distinct pleasure. Such qualities are in striking evidence in Adams and Almack's *A History of the United States*.

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In the first place, the book, designed by the authors for use in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools, is written in language that pupils of these grades can understand. The material is presented in an interesting style, and wise discretion is used in the selection of material that is vital to a clear, correct appreciation of the fundamentals of American life. This work is a striking refutation of the impression all too general that a work in history cannot be at once scholarly, interesting, and adapted to the capacities of those by whom it is designed to be used. The various devices at the end of the chapters for the aid of the teacher and the pupil are in strict accord with present-day demands. The reference works are especially well chosen. It is the reviewer's firm conviction that this is not "just another" text in American history for the upper elementary grades.

Dudley F. McCollum

*Teaching Composition in High School*, by  
LUCIA B. MIRRIELES. New York: Har-  
court, Brace and Company, 1931, 374  
pages.

Any one who accepts the current objectives and general procedures and at the same time is critical of the details and techniques employed in high-school composition will find Dr. Mirrieles's book most timely and helpful.

The author accepts in the main the traditional viewpoints and tendencies, and then proceeds to present a program for improving and refining them. It is a good program, full of concrete details and illustrations, full of "horse sense," helpful suggestions, based on a rich experience and keen, penetrating thought. Everything in the book will prove of practical help to young teachers, for whom it is specifically designed; and much of the material will be of help to the experienced teacher on the look-out for additions to his bag of tricks.

The two topics given full treatment are the mechanics of writing and written composition. The author's viewpoint on mechanics is sound; she would set up acquired minimal essentials, not too many and not unreasonably high; and she presents definite procedures for securing mastery of these essentials. Her discussion of written composition is wise and penetrating, replete with sense and sensitiveness.

But this reviewer, appreciative though he is of all these helpful details, regards the book as singularly deficient. It is deficient because the

## BOOK REVIEWS

important topic of oral composition is omitted. It is deficient because the procedures and activities stressed are those of the more formal and scholastic type. And it is woefully deficient and inadequate because the author accepts so blandly—and blindly—certain assumptions that have been challenged and severely attacked. The whole theory of school composition work as a chief instrument for teaching either language or organized thinking is under fire. Yet here is a book on composition that ignores the fundamental question: Is the composition procedure sufficiently functional and valuable to justify the time and energy devoted to it?

In short, here is a book which accepts the *status quo* and develops a technique of teaching, effectively and even artistically, under the *status quo*. If that is the type of book that is desired, *Teaching Composition in High School* will serve adequately, even admirably.

WALTER BARNES

*Ourselves and the World*, by F. E. LUMLEY and B. H. BODE. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1931, viii + 591 pages.

By picturing samples of engagements in the actual business of living rather than by assembling facts and figures and historical details, the authors of this stimulating treatise on the making of an American citizen have set before their readers an enlightening presentation of the relationships between the individual and society that must be developed and directed if men and women are to be worthy participants in the democratic life.

Democracy is conceived by the writers of this book not merely as a political structure, but as a living process and way of human growth. The test of democracy is not to be sought in any specific political machinery, but in the attainment of a rich and abundant life. By an examination of the effects of nature and nurture, of the nature of institutions, of the outstanding institutions of American life, and of the machinery of government in a democracy, the authors present us with a comprehensive philosophy of citizenship.

A. D. W.

*La Salle*, by ROSS F. LOCKRIDGE. New York: World Book Company, 1931, xiv + 312 pages.

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Vol. VI

JANUARY, 1932

No. 5

JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE is published by the Inor Publishing Co., Incorporated, monthly from September to May of each year.

Publication and Business Office, 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wis., or 32 Washington Place, New York, N.Y.

Editorial Office, School of Education, New York University, Washington Square East, New York, N.Y.

Subscription price: \$3.00 per year. Two years for \$5.00 if cash accompanies order. Single copies, 40 cents. Subscrip-  
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